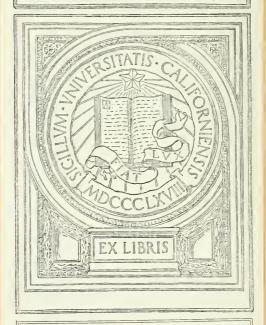


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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES



THE GIFT OF
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IN MEMORY OF
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HISTORY FOR BOYS;

OR,

ANNALS OF THE NATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE.

BY

JOHN G. EDGAR,

AUTHOR OF "THE BOYHOOD OF GREAT MEN" AND "THE FOOT-



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PREFACE.

The expediency of directing the attention of boys to historical knowledge will hardly be questioned by any one capable of forming an opinion on such a subject; and the object of the following pages is to exhibit, in a manner attractive to juvenile readers, the most interesting and important events in the history of modern Europe. While the most striking and illustrative incidents in the annals of each country have been carefully selected for narration, every circumstance essential to be known in regard to the rise and progress of the different European States has been mentioned, if not fully related; and as narrating events which must necessarily excite interest from their magnitude and importance, from the light which they throw on the period when they occurred, and from the effects which they have produced on succeeding ages, this volume will be found to contain a brief, but useful compendium of modern history.

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The advantage of such a work will not be lightly estimated by those who are impressed with the im-

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portance of history as a branch of education, and with the still greater importance, for future enjoyment and improvement, of an early taste for historical information. The great truths, it is true, which are proclaimed by the annals of nations—the views which they unfold of the systems of government under which we live, the guidance which they afford in politics and legislation, the peculiarities of human nature which they disclose, and the lessons which they enforce by examples—the last and most precious fruits of this important study—are scarcely the natural and proper objects of the juvenile understanding. But to enter into the spirit of stirring events, to form vivid conceptions of character and incidents, to sympathize with the illustrious actors on the stage of the world, and to see with the mind's eye the transactions which history has to record, constitute the appropriate exercise of youth, and the best preparation for a more profound and comprehensive knowledge.

Nor, independently of higher considerations, is this exercise of small benefit, as the means of preparing an unfailing source of intellectual gratification; for, wherever we turn our eyes, historical events are stamped on almost every object that meets our view. The galleries of art, the volumes of poetry and eloquence, the books of the law, parliamentary debates,

domestic and foreign occurrences, mountains and valleys, colleges and cathedrals, the schools of learning, the marts of commerce, the shores of ocean, the very stones of cities, are replete with historical associations, and calculated to recall the events of by-gone ages. A familiarity with history, therefore, is essential to every one who would understand the world in which he moves, and derive intellectual gratification from the places he frequents; and to store up such knowledge in the mind-not bare facts, but definite and adequate ideas of mighty events, and clear conceptions of heroic personages—is to accumulate a treasure, which will be often called for, and always found invaluable. Every thing which tends to this great end, a wise and judicious guide of youth will apply with care and vigilance.

To assist in rendering historical knowledge interesting, without the smallest sacrifice of accuracy, is the aim of this book. The history of each of the States of Europe is briefly sketched, commencing with that of France, which is regarded by philosophers as the great centre of European affairs. She has not, it is true, on all occasions, marched at the head of the nations of Europe. Italy took the lead of her in the arts; Germany was foremost in repressing the Papal power, and paving the way for the Reformation in

religion; while in wealth, commerce, national industry, and, above all, in self-government, England has left every rival and competitor immeasurably behind. Yet the whole of modern history may, with propriety, be grouped around that of France; for even where the influence of that great country has not been conspicuously displayed, it has never ceased to affect ideas, and to determine the character of that civilization, which is now in full and auspicious progress.

Limited as is the compass within which so many events are brought, I am not without hope that this "History for Boys" will not be altogether ineffectual in encouraging the youthful reader to pursue, on a more extended scale, the study of that great branch of human science, which one of its ancient cultivators aptly described as "philosophy teaching by examples."

J. G. E.

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HISTORY FOR BOYS.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF FRANCE.

In the fifth century, when the Roman Empire was rapidly declining, when the Roman legions had been withdrawn from Britain, and replaced by the Saxon followers of Hengist, and when the Gaulish provinces, though nominally under the power and protection of the Imperial eagles, only felt the weight of their shadow—foremost among the Salian Franks, a fierce and vigorous Germanic tribe that had forcibly occupied the territory extending from the Rhine to the Somme, was a stripling known and trusted among his barbaric comrades as Clovis, the grandson of Merowig.

This military chief, though renowned as the founder of a great monarchy, appears to have been in reality an unmitigated savage; but his courage was indomitable; his skill was sufficient for a rude species of warfare; and in the eyes of associates a degree more ignorant and superstitious than himself, his long, rich, unpolled hair, indicated a mysterious descent from the Seandinavian deities. And thus it happened, that being in want of a king, the skin-clad Franks formally elevated the undagnted Clovis on a buckler, and signified, by loud acclamations, that he was the man chosen to lead them to earnage, conquest, and plunder.

The prelates then residing in Gaul aspired, as faithful sons of Rome, to substitute ecclesiastical ties for the Imperial chain that had hitherto bound nations to the Eternal City; and were, therefore, quite the reverse of inattentive to this worshiper of Odin. While paying visits to the Frankish camp, they treated him with flattering politeness; and though Clovis was at first so provokingly insensible to their compliments as to continue the pillage of churches, Fortune ere long conducted him into their subtle toils. While pursuing his conquests, the untamed son of Merowig was inspired with emotions of tenderness by the charms of Clotilda, daughter of a Burgundian king, and was thus induced to marry the only woman of German extraction who had embraced the Catholic faith.

No event could have harmonized more completely with the aims and objects of the holy fathers. The love and blandishments of the captivating princess not only exercised a softening influence on the heart of her untutored husband, but dissipated the heathen prejudices in which he had been nurtured; and thus it came to pass, that in a conflict with some Germans who rashly aspired to imitate the example of the

Franks, and appropriate the lands of the defenseless Gauls, Clovis, thinking his soldiers were on the point of giving way, invoked the aid of Clotilda's God, with an oath to adopt the religion of his spouse if he came off the field a conqueror. He was victorious, and proved faithful to his vow.

The Cathedral of Rheims was the scene of the Frankish warrior's admission into the Christian fold. Roman art was ungrudgingly used to lend effect to so signal a triumph over the powers of darkness, and to render the occasion forever memorable. The edifice was decorated with the images and relics of saints; garlands and tapestry adorned the vestibule, vails of divers colors modified the glare of the sun, and, in costly vessels of gold and silver, quantities of the most exquisite perfume burned with grateful fragrance. Every thing was calculated to touch the imaginations of the pagan warriors, and Clovis was impressed with awe and wonder at so much poinp and splendor. "Father," asked the bewildered neophyte, as the Bishop of Rheims, in imposing pontificals, led him by the hand to the baptistery, "is not this itself that kingdom of heaven to which you have promised to conduct me?" The example of a leader so tried and triumphant as Clovis proved contagious, and several thousands of the sacrilegious Franks were forthwith added to the Romish communion. Messengers straightway conveyed to the successor of St. Peter intelligence of this important ceremony, as well as rich presents by

way of tribute from the newly-converted king; and in return the Pope sent Clovis letters of congratulation, besides conferring on him the title of "Eldest Son of the Church."

From this date the progress of the Franks was comparatively easy. Towns and cities opened their gates; the Roman garrisons, with their arms and standards, passed over to the service of Clovis; and at length, flushed with enthusiasm, he resolved to enter Burgundy with fire and sword. Terrible was the consequence. The inhabitants were mercilessly slaughtered, the vines and fruit-trees wildly torn up, and the convents unscrupulously pillaged. At length the Burgundian king, having submitted and sworn to be a tributary, Clovis retraced his steps to the north of the Loire, with an enormous booty. Time passed on, and the beautiful provinces occupied by the Visigoths tempted the Frankish monarch's cupidity. He assembled his followers in a field, and addressed them in a circle: "I like not." he said, "that these Goths, who are Arians, should possess the best part of Gaul. Let us go against them." The Franks were, of course, delighted at the prospect of fresh plunder, and experienced no slight joy in being led southward. Their campaign was short, but decisive; for in an engagement at Vouglé, their arms once more proved irresistible: Alaric, the Gothic king, fell fighting; and the country, as far as the Garonne, yielded to the victor.

The monarchy thus gained, with Paris for its

capital, was, on the decease of Clovis, inherited by his four sons; who, after a series of criminal, civil wars, left successors so degenerate, that their noblest ambition was to be dragged in an easy wagon by welltrained oxen, their highest gratification to sit at a board covered with savory viands. Thus the supreme power passed to Pepin of Heristal, and his son, Charles Martel, who, as Mayors of the Palace, governed France and repulsed the Saracens with ability and courage for a considerable period. The progeny of the bold and conquering Clovis retained nothing but the name of King; and in the middle of the eighth century, Pepin le Bref, son of Charles Martel, tired of ruling without a sceptre, dismissed Childeric, the last of the Merovingians, to a monastery, and openly aspired to royal rank.

In that age of rapacity, insecurity, and invasion, when old empires were passing away and all things becoming new, physical prowess and the defiance of danger were, with reason, valued at a high rate; and Pepin, though short in stature, was endowed with thews and sinews, as well as surpassing valor. On one occasion, being present at an encounter between a lion and a wild bull, which seemed on the point of terminating in the fall of the ignobler beast, he suddenly turned to the assembled nobles, and pointing to the combatants exclaimed, "Which of you dares to separate them?" There was no reply; but Pepin, drawing his sword, fearlessly leaped into the arena,

and killed both animals. Then flinging down the bloody weapon, he faced the marveling spectators, and asked, with a smile of triumph, "Well, am I not worthy to be your king?"

Arguments different, doubtless, but not less convincing, were addressed to the Pope, whose alliance was indispensable. His right to dispose of temporal crowns was fully recognized; and in requital he gave a solemn sanction to the Mayor of the Palace being elected King of the Franks. At the coronation, ceremonies observed in the case of the Jewish kings were revived. Pepin was consecrated by St. Boniface, the apostle of Germany, and began to reign in 752. recompense for the Pope's timely support, he turned his arms against the Lombards; and being conscious of his defective title, he strove by all legitimate means to enlist the affection and sympathy of his subjects. After occupying the throne with the sagacity and resolution which characterized four generations of that great Austrasian family, Pepin departed this life, having, with the consent of his nobles, divided the kingdom between his sons, and firmly established what was afterward known through good and evil report as the Carlovingian dynasty. The younger of Pepin's successors died soon after their wise and provident sire; the other being thereupon acknowledged as sovereign by the whole nation, long survived to add a worthy mark of universal respect to his name of Charles, and to render that of Charlemagne illustrious in the annals of the world. Charlemagne was, both in a personal and intellectual point of view, admirably fitted to be a popular prince and a ruler of millions. His stature was tall, his countenance open, his eye large with thought and beaming with intelligence, and his head shaped like a dome. Within was a spirit active, ambitious, and energetic; an eager appetite for knowledge, a soul that scorned danger, and a keen sense of enjoyment. In an age of darkness he had so high an appreciation of the blessings of education, and so much care for the future, that he not only supported a multitude of schools, but maintained a seminary in his palace for the sons of magnates, to whom he is reported to have spoken words of wisdom and enlightenment.

The military enterprises of Charlemagne were equally extensive and victorious. He first buckled on his armor at the request of the Pope, dethroned the King of the Lombards, and terminated their long dominion in Italy. Then, believing himself ordained to subdue the barbarians of Europe to Christianity, he resolved to prove the orthodoxy of his doetrines by an appeal to the sword. The Saxons of Germany, forming a number of small republics, were the first whom he sought to convert. Charlemagne defeated their heroic captain, Witikind, in a tough battle, compelled them to receive baptism, and appointed abbots and bishops to their various principalities. He next marched against the Saracens, and was success-

ful in subduing a portion of their territory; but in returning through the mountains he was worsted at Roncesvalles, where perished Roland and Oliver, the most famous of his twelve paladins. He redeemed this disaster by new and victorious exploits; and in 795 had the merit of reinstating Leo III. on the papal throne, from which he had been rudely dragged. The Pope proved by no means ungrateful for so emineut a service. On the Christmas of 800, while Charlemagne was kneeling at prayer within the basilica of St. Peter, Leo approached, and placed the imperial crown on his brow. He was immediately saluted with the title of Augustus, and from that day considered himself a true successor of the Roman Emperors of the West. For the purpose of watching and restraining the Saxons, who were not fully subdued till 804, he made Aix-la-Chapelle the capital of his empire, and enriched his palace with the marbles of Ravenna and the spoils of the other Italian cities. After a brilliant and distinguished career, Charlemagne expired in his seventy-second year, and went down to his tomb in imperial robes, leaving the crown, won with valor and defended with genius, to his sole surviving son, Louis le Débonnaire.

The first measure to which the new Emperor—a weak, but beneficent man—asked the assent of the Champ de Mars—the Frankish comitia—was one to associate his heir, Lothaire, with him on the throne; while to the other sons, Pepin and Louis, he granted

Aquitaine and Bavaria. The three princes thus handsomely provided for were perpetually at feud, till they discovered a bond of union in the unnatural resolution to make war against their too-indulgent father. Alleging that he intended to create out of their kingdoms a patrimony for their youngest brother, Charles the Bald, they cast the Emperor into prison, and compelled him publicly to perform a humiliating penance in the cathedral of Soissons. The exemplary Louis regained his liberty, but the memory of the shame and abuse he had undergone brought him down with sorrow to the grave, and his parricidal son, Lothaire, assumed the imperial diadem.

A new eivil war broke out among the brothers, and a sanguinary battle was fought in the vicinity of Auxerre, when no fewer than a hundred thousand men are said to have fallen. At last, after a long period of fearful anarehy and confusion, Charles the Bald obtained the imperial crown, shorn as it was of dignity; and he diminished its influence still farther by rendering titles and tenures hereditary.

It was during this reign, while the impetuous Saracens were desolating the southern frontiers, that the fierce pirates of the North commenced their depredations on the coast of France. They had appeared as early as the time of Charlemagne, and excited that vigilant, far-seeing monarch's apprehensions for the future; but the ships of war which, for the protection of trade, were stationed at the mouths of rivers, and

the terror of his arms, had effectually checked their inroads. These Danes, as they were called, if from the islands of the Baltic, or Normans, if from the coast of Norway, were not, indeed, men to be frightened with the shadow of a name or by royal ciphers. They were the most reckless and barbarous of mortals, prided themselves on having never slept under the smoke-dried roof, nor emptied the brimming can by the chimney-corner. They guided their frail barks, on whose prows were gilt figures of lions, bulls, dragons, or dolphins, with as much ease as a dexterous horseman reins his steed, regarded the ocean as their home, and called the tempest their servant. They especially delighted in shedding the blood of Christian priests, in desecrating churches, and in converting royal chapels into stables. They tossed, without a thought of mercy, unweaned infants on the points of their ensanguined spears, amidst hoarse laughter; mocked the idea of tears or mourning; and rejoiced beyond measure in the din of battle and the clash of steel. At the approach of death they knew no fear; for, in imagination, they saw goddesses beckoning them to the halls of Odin, and regaled their fancies with the anticipation of feasting in a circle in their Valhalla, or paradise of heroes, waited on by the loveliest of damsels, and quaffing flowing draughts of beer out of huge horn cups.

In quest of, or with a view to plunder, for which their appetite was insatiable, these Scandinavian pirates braved countless perils, and made blood flow like water. Regner Lodbrog, one of their most celebrated and incorrigible sea-kings, after committing depredations in almost every part of Europe, sailed up the Seine to Paris, ravaging and slaughtering all the way. He was, after thirty years of piracy, stung to death by venomous snakes in the dungeon of a Northumbrian prince, chanting in the hour of agony a song full of savage spirit and wild hope. Hasting, another sea-king, hardly less famous, though the son of a peaceful peasant near Troyes, was for a time the terror of the English coast. He was forced to retire before the white-horse standard, under which Alfred the Great ranged his light-haired Saxons; but the fearless pirate indefatigably crossed the Channel, and long after, while standing on the prow of his ship, struck consternation into the hearts of Frankish lords and Gaulish slaves. The dread blast of the ivory horn, which hung from his neck to summon his corsair fleet, awed them more than the sound of thunder. But none of these rovers rendered himself more formidable than Eric, king of Denmark. Penetrating to Paris with three hundred barks, he plundered the city, devastated the adjacent villages, drove the inhabitants like herds of cattle to the forests, and executed his work so thoroughly, that where he had passed hardly even a cur remained to howl at the solitude. A subsequent attempt on Paris, however, was so gallantly and resolutely resisted by Count Eudes, that an assembly of the States, in defiance of hereditary rights, rewarded the gallant warrior's services on the occasion by voting him the crown, which on his death, ten years later, reverted to that Charles whom history calls the Simple, but whom his rude contemporaries characterized as the Fool.

At this period Harold, distinguished by a profusion of beautiful hair, succeeded in forming the petty states of Norway into a kingdom, and, for the security of his realm against the chiefs whom he had dispossessed, enacted stern laws against piracy. Among the noble Scandinavians still frequenting his court, none was more faithful or beloved than an Earl named Rognvald. All this man's sons were noted for valor, and the tallest, bravest, and most remarkable of the family, was Roll the Walker, so called because no horse in his country was high enough to carry him. It happened that this young Norwegian, during a cruise, had manifested so utter a disregard for the rights of property, that King Harold, in anger, doomed him to a life-long exile. The sentence seemed harsh to his relatives, doubtless, but Roll was not a man to waste time in regretting what could not be remedied, or to die on a foreign strand of that hope deferred which maketh the heart sick. On the contrary, he prepared for a life of adventure; fitted out some vessels, and steered for the Hebrides, where many of the expatriated Norwegians had found an asylum. They readily agreed to take part in his adventures, and soon with sails and

oars were impelling their little ships up the Seine, only resting for the purpose of ruthlessly ravaging its margin.

The inhabitants of Rouen were filled with terror and dismay at the approach of such visitors; but the Archbishop ventured, somewhat desperately, upon an interview with the Norman chiefs, and after a long parley persuaded them to spare the city. This being agreed to, they moored their vessels, entered at one of the gates, minutely inspected the place, and finding every thing to their taste, determined to make it the capital of the land they had come to conquer. Meantime they continued their voyage up the Seine to the place where it is joined by the river Eure. There on its left bank they encamped, threw up fortifications, and calmly awaited the approach of a French army, which was now in full march.

King Charles was under the hallucination, that by one strenuous effort the ruthless spoilers might be crushed; and with this view mustered his forces and intrusted the command to Regnauld, duke of France. With him went many noble counts, and took up a position on the right bank of the Eure, at some distance from the Kings of the North. Conspicuous among the banners there displayed in favor of law and order was that of Hasting, the old sea-king, who had long since in weariness deserted the pine-plank, become a decorous citizen, and commenced a new career as Count of Chartres. Hasting advised his

friends not needlessly to risk a battle, and though many regarded such counsel from him with suspicion, it prevailed so far, that on the principle perhaps of setting one thief to catch another, he was empowered, with two Franks who understood the Northern tongue, to negotiate with the wild and reckless invaders.

Following the river's course, the Frankish envoys were soon opposite the camp of the Normans, and there Hasting halted, with the air of a man who perfectly comprehended his position.

- "Ho, my brave warriors! what is the name of your chiefs?" he shouted across the stream.
- "We acknowledge none," replied the Normans, proudly; "we are all equals."
- "Wherefore did you come into this realm? What seek you?"
- "We came to expel or subjugate the natives and make the country our own. But who art thou who canst so readily speak in our tongue?"

The Count smiled grimly, and memory brought the light of other days around him as he said—"Heard you never of Hasting the famous pirate, who so long scoured the sea and terrified the land?"

- "Yes," the Normans cried; "we have heard of Hasting, who began like a lion and ended like a lamb."
- "Well, you must submit to King Charles, who for faithful service will grant you fiefs and honors."

"No—we'll submit to no man," replied the Normans; "but whatever we win with our swords, we can maintain by the same means. Thou hast our answer!"

Hasting returned to the royal army, and reported the result of his mission, at the same time expressing his opinion that any attempt to force the Norman fortifications would be perilous. A Count named Rolland stood forth, and exclaimed—"That is the judgment of a traitor!" Several lords repeated the cry, and the old sea-king was cut to the heart. He instantly quitted the eamp, deliberately abandoned his county of Chartres, and was never more recognized in the haunts of living men. His prescience soon appeared; for an assault on the Norman intrenchments was repulsed with loss, the royal army totally defeated, and the Duke of France slain by a fisherman of Rouen.

The Normans now navigated the Seine without interruption, besieged Paris, and surprising Bayeux, killed Béranger, its count. The latter had a beautiful daughter, who fell to the share of Roll, and became his wife. Evreux, with several other towns, fell into the hands of the Normans. Roll was elected their lord; and becoming more civilized, he soon rendered himself wonderfully popular with the natives of the conquered district.

The Normans, however, were undesirable neighbors. Reinforced by congenial allies, they preyed upon the territory between the Loire and the Seine,

and the people began to murmur bitterly against the useless strife; and at length, in 912, matters were satisfactorily accommodated. Charles ceded to Roll the province of Neustria, one of the most fruitful divisions of France. The Norman chief vowed reformation, accepted Gisla, the king's daughter, in marriage, and was received into the bosom of the Catholic Church. On the occasion of his taking the oath of allegiance at the village of St. Clair a ludierous incident occurred. After swearing, it was intimated, that to complete the ceremony he must kneel before the King and kiss his foot. Roll declared disdainfully that he would perform no such ceremony for any man living; but the lords insisting on it, as a piece of etiquette observed in the court of the Frankish Cæsar, he ordered one of his soldiers to do homage in his stead. The Norman soldier unhesitatingly obeyed; but neglecting to bend his knee, he lifted the royal foot so high in the effort to bring it up to his mouth, that the heir of Charlemagne fell sprawling on the ground, and shouts of derisive laughter burst from the new liegemen.

Roll soon divided his territory into fiefs, changed its name to Normandy, maintained internal order by severe laws, and was deemed the most vigorous justiciary of his day. Such was the feeling of security, that laborers and mechanics flocked to establish themselves in the newly-founded state, and Roll's repute became widely popular. His followers applied

themselves to agriculture, with as much ardor as they had previously exhibited in their predatory exploits; and from a band of grim pirates, these Normans, adopting the French tongue, gradually, and by degrees, were transformed into the most refined race in Christendom—orators from their eradle, wise statesmen in the cabinet, and valiant warriors in the field.

Meantime, the condition of France was wretched in the extreme. The descendants of Charlemagne were the most impotent of princes, and totally incapable of ruling with credit. Indeed the royal prerogatives had gradually passed to the eighteen great feudatories, who, as was natural in the circumstances, eonsidered that might was right, owned no rule of conduct but their iron wills, and aeknowledged no law but the length of their swords. They dwelt in castles strongly fortified, levied troops, administered justice, coined money, and made peace or declared war. In imitation of their superiors, the rich proprietors flanked their manor-houses with turrets and surrounded them with deep ditches. Around the ramparts rose the miserable huts or eabins of the serfs, who were employed as eraftsmen or tillers of the soil. The walls of the old Roman towns had fallen to decay; the bluff, wealthy, industrious burgher nowhere existed; the urban population were poor, servile, and timorous; and commerce had almost disappeared. The trader, with a pack on his shoulder, trudged nervously from place to place, hawking his wares, in perpetual dread of losing his hoarded gains. The district long preyed upon by the Normans was for a time in the worst plight. From Blois to Senlis not an acre was cultivated; and such was the terror inspired by the comrades of Roll before their conversion, that no peasant was courageous enough to labor either in the fields or in the vineyards. This state of matters cast a gloom over the spirits of the men of that generation. A frightful idea prevailed that the world was about to end; the very year was stated; and certain phenomena were regarded as infallible omens of the approaching dissolution.

In the midst of this general misery and depression, the representative of the Carlovingian dynasty, which had long been condemned in the public mind, was set aside; and in 987 Hugh Capet, count of Paris, with the consent of a large majority of the nobles and people, was crowned king by the Archbishop of Rheims, chief of the French clergy. A national royalty being thus created, the feudal system originated by Charles Martel was rapidly developed, and had the effect of rescuing the country from utter chaos and anarchy. King Hugh, however, was entirely under the control of the priests, and exercised no perceptible influence on the age in which he lived. Neither did his successor, Robert, a pions, feeble, and benevolent man, who, ever the sport of circumstances, was in later years completely swayed by his haughty consort, Constance of Toulouse. That royal termagant, on

becoming a widow, waged war against her eldest son, Henry I., with the object of dethroning him in favor of his younger brother. She was quite unsuccessful; for Robert, duke of Normandy, came to the aid of his nominal sovereign; and the rebel prince, being defeated in his aspirations, was consoled with the investiture of the Duchy of Burgundy.

Henry's reign was not altogether undistinguished by warlike achievements. While civil war, fear, famine, wild beasts, and ferocious nobles were desolating the realm, his Norman subjects were rendering their valor widely famous. A party of Normans, in the guise of pilgrims, but eager for martial enterprise, landed on the south coast of Italy, and assisted the dwellers in Salerno to vanquish an army of Saracens. Allured by the report of their exploits, Robert Guiseard, and his brother Richard, led thither a band of martial adventurers, won a series of battles, and founded, in 1052, the Norman kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

Philip I., son of Henry, succeeded in 1060, on the eve of an event which was destined not only to stimulate that love of adventure inherent in the hearts of men, but to raise up a succession of formidable rivals to the lineage of Hugh Capet, and, more than once, reduce the kingdom of France to the unhappy condition of a conquered province.

Five centuries and a half from the period when the huge axes and white-horse banner of Hengist and Horsa had driven the painted Caledonians to crouch in their Highland fastnesses, and the Cambrian Britons to lurk in the mountains of Wales, and more than two centuries from the period when Alfred the Great had overcome the terrible Danes—Ethelred, king of England, espoused Emma, sister of Richard, duke of Normandy. From that day all went wrong in the country which owned his sway. Swen, king of Denmark, landed on the shores, unfurled a mystic flag of white silk, in the centre of which was a black raven with open beak and outspread wings, and drove Ethelred into exile. The dethroned king sought refuge in Normandy, and there his son, afterward known as Edward the Confessor, was brought up from infancy.

At that time there was being educated with no slight care, in the palace of Rouen, a spirited urchin, named William, whose mother, Arlete, had been daughter of a skinner in Falsaise. When this lad was about eight years old, Duke Robert, seized with a desire of undertaking a penitential pilgrimage on foot to Jerusalem, was told by his barons that it would be unsafe to leave them without a chief. "By my faith," answered the Duke, "I'll not leave you in that position. I have a little boy, who will grow a gallant man, if it please God. Take my son then as your chief, for I declare him my heir, and give him from this time the whole Duchy of Normandy." It suited the barons to raise no objections. They placed their hands in the young bastard's, and pledged their fidel-

ity. Duke Robert breathed his last while a pilgrim; several barons protested against William's succession; and two seigneurs, prouder than the others of their pure Northern blood, headed the malcontents. But the King of France, from motives of policy, aided William against his enemies, and secured the boy in his duchy.

The young Duke showed himself very warlike, and excessively ambitious. He soon assumed armor, learned to mount his war-steed without placing his foot in the stirrup, and attacked the provinces of Brittany and Anjou. He was at great pains to enrich his mother's relations; he espoused Matilda, daughter of Baldwin, count of Flanders; and he exacted from the Saxon Edward a promise of being heir to the English crown, in case of that exiled prince ever being restored to the dignity enjoyed by his kingly ancestors. The arms and policy of the great Earl Godwin placed Edward on his father's throne, and the English king married his restorer's daughter—the beautiful, excellent, and learned Edith. Nevertheless, though receiving the hand of an English bride, King Edward was wholly wedded to Norman ideas and sentiments, and speedily surrounded himself with favorites from the country in which he had been reared. Norman warriors governed his fortresses; Norman prelates were preferred to bishopries; and Norman politicians figured as the king's eouncilors. Nay, more: Norman-French was spoken, not only in the palace of Westminster, but in

the residences of the English patricians; and many of the latter, forgetting which was in reality the greater race, servilely imitated the strangers, even to the extent of donning short mantles with wide sleeves, instead of long cloaks, and in appending their seals to documents instead of signing their names.

Against these extremely unpopular innovations, Earl Godwin and his son Harold scornfully and uncompromisingly set their faces, and their contumacy was punished by an irksome banishment. They sought refuge in Flanders; and it was then that William of Normandy repaired to England on a visit to his old comrade, Edward the Confessor. He found the country pleasant and wealthy, but very different, both in climate and condition, from what it is in the nineteenth century. Good and wholesome wine was produced by the vineyards of Glastonbury, by whose rich abbey grew the miraculous thorn, said to have bloomed annually at Christmas. The mountains of Crag Eyriri were whitened with perpetual snow; a large portion of the island was covered with forests, which were ranged by the bear, boar, and wild bull; and vellow wolves still infested the sheepfold, though an English king had done his utmost to extirpate the breed by enjoining his Welsh subjects to bring in wolves' heads to the treasury instead of tribute-money. Winehester was the true constitutional capital of the realm, in whose palace the old Saxon kings had resided, and in whose cathedral the Confessor had been

crowned. But London had been resorted to by foreign traders as early as the seventh century, and was regarded as a most populous and flourishing city. The commerce of the country was extensive, relatively to the period; and the stuffs embroidered by English women were wonderful in the eyes of strangers. the magnificence of the English nobles some conception may be formed from the statement that Earl Godwin, on one occasion, bribed a dominant Dane with a vessel adorned with gilt metal, manned with eighty soldiers, each of them wearing a gold helmet, a gilt ax on his left shoulder, a javelin in his right hand, and on each arm a bracelet of gold, weighing six ounces. Well might the avariee and ambition of the Norman duke be stimulated by such a land, especially at the time when the energy of the fiery Dane was being advantageously engrafted on the sagacity of the wealthy Saxon, and when hostile races were gradually sitting down in peace together.

Before the sudden restoration of Earl Godwin to his country William had returned to Normandy, bringing with him presents of dogs, horses, and falcons, and an ardent ambition to rule over rich England. Events favored his bold aspirations. When Harold had succeeded to the influence and possessions of his father Godwin, he was imprudent enough, in company with several gay companions, to undertake a voyage to Normandy. William, who was as skillful in discerning his interest as crafty and unwavering in pursuing it.

received his noble guest with joy, carried him about from town to town, and from castle to castle, and enrolled his English followers in the Norman militia. Harold accompanied his host, and signalized his prowess in a war against the Bretons. The English earl and the Norman duke became intimate, fought as brothers-in-arms, slept in the same tent, and dined at the same table. At length William lured Harold into a promise, and afterward, by a cunningly-devised ceremony, made him swear, to aid his ducal host in obtaining the English crown. The oath was taken over holy relies, in presence of the assembled barons, and Harold departed with an idea that, as it had been sworn under compulsion, it was not binding on his conscience.

In the year 1066, Edward the Confessor died, having previously named Earl Harold as the man most worthy to reign. Accordingly, the rich and popular son of Godwin was elected king, and from the day of his elevation proved himself a wise, just, and energetic ruler.

When news of Harold's election was carried to the court of Rouen, the Duke of Normandy immediately dispatched messengers to remind his former guest of the engagement under which he had so solennly come. But the mission proving fruitless, William resolved to make good his claim by force; and having obtained the sanction of the Papal court to his daring enterprise, he landed an army without resistance at Pevensey,

near Hastings. It was about the close of September, when Harold, the English monarch, having previously defeated Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, who fell dead on the banks of the Humber, while riding through the ranks on his coal-black steed, chanting extempore verse, brought his army, flushed with recent victory, but weary with long marches, against the well-disciplined Norman host at Hastings, on the spot where Battle Abbey was subsequently erected. The issue was extremely disastrous to the English. Their brave king, with two of his brothers, fell fighting at the foot of their standard; and after a struggle, which was continued in desperation till sunset, the English army dispersed in confusion. Some expired of sheer fatigue by the way; and others were chased to death and trampled down by the fierce Norman horsemen, who granted no quarter. The victors marched on to London, and William, being crowned in the abbey of Westminster, planted the three-lion banner of Normandy on the battlements of the Tower, which became his residence in summer, as the castle of Gloucester was in winter, and the palace of Winchester in spring.

Having portioned out the English territory in the south and eastern provinces among his adventurous followers, and, indeed, so distributed rewards and honors that the natives of England were at the feet of nobles who had been drovers in Normandy, and of knights who had been weavers in Flanders, William

returned in triumph to his continental dominions. He brought thither a larger quantity of the precious metals than was to be found in the whole of Gaul, and several of the English who had been delivered to him as hostages. He was received with the utmost enthusiasm by the crowds who flocked from Rouen to the sea-shore. A kinsman of the French monarch, inspired by curiosity, went with a numerous train to the Norman court; and the French vied with the Normans in their admiration of the personal beauty of the long-haired hostages; and not less, it may be taken for granted, in their appreciation of the chased gold and silver plate, and the massive horn drinking-cups, which enabled the Conqueror to display his bounty and munificence. William's vanity was gratified; no one dared now to allude to his grandsire's occupation: he had, in fact, made himself the most independent sovereign in Europe. Repairing to England, he marched into the west, despoiled the English inhabitants, divided their lands, and took them as subjects on his own terms.

The Norman king had not yet, however, any reason to sigh for another world to conquer. There still lay beyond the Humber a vast tract of land, where no Norman horse-shoe had ever left its print; where tall Danes and wise Saxons were plowing, sowing, and reaping, and marrying and giving in marriage; and where Edgar Atheling, the rightful heir of the old Saxon dynasty, was acknowledged as King of En-

gland, and celebrated by bards as the brave, beautiful darling of his country. Thither William went with a vow of extermination, and precipitating his army on Northumberland, he deliberately burned towns, villages, and fields of corn, including in his vengeance the flocks and herds, as well as human beings. Having in this manner spread desolation to the borders of the Tweed, though without subduing the natives, the foreign king turned his arms against Chester, entered the city, and rode through the echoing streets as a conqueror, established a fortress to awe the inhabitants, and conferred the surrounding district on one of his numerous followers.

As may be supposed, Philip, king of France, though leading a scandalous life, and indulging in the utmost license, did not contemplate without jealousy and uncasiness the increase of wealth and authority which his great subject, William of Normandy, had derived from a military expedition, at once daring, speculative, and successful. As early as 1073 he had entered into communications with Edgar Atheling, and tempted that luckless prince to make one heroic venture for his ancestral crown. The royal Saxon was satisfied with Philip's friendly proposals, and accepted the invitation of that monarch to visit France. But hardly had he sailed from the territories of his hospitable kinsman, Malcolm, king of Scots, when a violent tempest wrecked his ships, and the exile was persuaded to yield to his fate, and submit to the Conqueror.

William, who was at the time achieving triumphs in Maine, invited the suppliant heir of kings to repair to Normandy, and Edgar took up his residence at the court of Rouen. While there he wore the Conqueror's livery, received one mark a day from the treasury, and amused himself with dogs and horses. He even conceived so strong a fancy for a celebrated charger in the king's stables, that he purchased the animal by abandoning his pension. Such a being was evidently no fit instrument for Philip's purposes.

But when the territorial subjugation of England had been completed by lawless force, when the grand roll, which the natives with too much reason called Doomsday Book, had created feuds among the Normans, and when William was worn out with the cares and fatigues of a twenty-years' struggle, an enemy to his peace started from out of his own household. This was no less near a relative than his eldest son, Robert, who on the Conqueror's refusing to abdicate Normandy in his favor, quarreled with his brothers, attacked Rouen, and went about publishing his grievances till he enlisted Philip's aid. He was thus enabled to raise a body of mercenaries, and fortify himself in a strong castle. There the rebel prince was besieged, and encountered hand to hand by his stern sire. Peace between them was restored, but soon after Robert, with a father's curse upon his head, fared forth to seek new adventures.

In 1087, William, for the third and last time, left

England, groaning under the yoke he had imposed, and repaired to Normandy, which he had enriched with the plunder of the ancient kingdom. He was eager to terminate his differences with the King of France, and while confined to his bed in the palace of Rouen directed negotiations with that view. At the same time two of his sons, Robert and Henry, happened to visit the French court. One day while there, they began to play at chess with Louis, the heir-apparent to the crown of France. Henry, who is known in history by the surname of Beauelere, appears to have been marvelously successful in gaming, and it is more than probable that on this occasion fortune did not desert him. At all events, Louis, somehow or other, lost his temper, and high words ensuing, he not only taunted the Norman princes with their father's base birth, but contemptuously threw the chessmen in their faces. This was more than Henry's flesh and blood could bear. He seized the chessboard with both hands, and hurled it with so much fury at the head of Louis, that the latter fell bleeding on the floor. The Norman princes started up in alarm, hurried to the stables, mounted their horses, and effected their escape.

Jests, too coarse to be repeated now, passed between the kings of England and France. William arose from his sick-bed, assembled an army, and entered his feudal superior's dominions in the last week of July. The corn was waving on the fields; the grapes were swelling in the vineyards; and the fruit was ripening on the trees. William's horsemen trod down the corn, destroyed the vines, cut up the fruit-trees, and set the town of Mantes on fire. In a state of frantic joy he rode through the flames, enjoying the scene of destruction, and encouraging his soldiers in the work of conflagration. But as he was cantering among the ruins his courser stumbled over some burning embers, and fell with a start, which proved fatal to the corpulent rider. The excitement he had undergone while galloping about and hounding on his men rendered the wound incurable, and, in a hapless plight, he was carried back to Rouen. Finding the noise from the streets intolerable, he was conveyed to the priory of St. Gervase, standing quietly on a hill outside the city. There, under the care of his physicians, the Bishop of Lysieux and the Abbot of Jumieges, William prepared for death, received the sacrament, and settled his affairs. To his eldest son, who was then at Abbeville, he left Normandy, but expressed his conviction that the land would be wretched over which Robert ruled. In regard to William Rufus, the second son, who stood by his uneasy couch, the Conqueror spoke in accents of filial affection, and expressed an earnest wish that he should inherit the crown of England. Rufus took the palatable hint, received the dying man's blessing, and embarked forthwith to urge his claim. To Henry, his youngest and favorite son, William then granted five thousand pounds in white

silver, told and weighed; and to the young prince's complaint of having neither houses nor land, gave the comfortable assurance that they would all be his when the others had run their course. Besides, he ordered all his prisoners to be set free, and then awaited the great destroyer.

About sunrise on the morning of September the 10th, the Conqueror of England, after languishing for six weeks, opened his eyes for the last time to the light of day. As he awoke, the sound of bells and the voices of the monks singing their Latin hymn to the hour of prime, filled his ear. The exhausted warrior turned on his bed, and his hands, so often imbrued in blood, were still raised in prayer, when his fierce soul winged its way from earth. The news spread, and confusion reigned throughout the palace. Henry rushed to the treasury to secure his legacy; the barons mounted and rode off to their castles; and the domestics carried away the armor, plate, and household stuffs. The corpse was unattended, save by a solitary menial; but at length a private country gentleman took measures for its inhumation; and being placed in a boat on the Scine, it was conveyed for interment to a cathedral which the Conqueror had built at Caen, and dedicated to St. Stephen.

The dead king had, before rising from his bed and setting out on his last expedition, vowed, in answer to a rough speech of the French monarch, that he would be churched at Nôtre Dame, with ten thousand lances for his candles; and he was not a man likely to forego his threat. It is not wonderful, therefore, that Philip talked more freely, and experienced a feeling of joyful relief, when so formidable a foe breathed his last. However, he speedily found a new enemy in the Pope, who passed on the licentious king a sentence of excommunication; and Philip, a vietim to the fear of death and to a haunting superstition, finished his days in the garb of a Benedictine monk.

His successor, Louis VI.—he who had insulted the Conqueror's sons-did much to redeem the Capetian line of kings from the reproach of ignorance, inertness, and worthlessness. With a comprehension of the spirit of that age, he accomplished himself in warlike exercises, and won renown and admiration as the first knight in France. His position was arduous, for his great barons were in open rebellion, and at their head was Henry Beauelere, who, when his brother William Rufus was accidentally shot in the New Forest, not only seized upon the English crown, but deprived Robert of the duchy of Normandy. King Louis ravaged Normandy with an army, and was successful in exacting favorable conditions from a council convened at Rheims, and presided over by the Pope. The nobles had of late become so lawless, that they infested the roads between Paris and Orleans, plundering the villages and robbing the merchants; but the King, after a desperate effort, reduced many to submission, and established public security. Louis was careful also to aid the middle class, then struggling into existence. During his reign several Communes were enfranchised; the schools of Paris became famous; and students, attracted by the eloquence of Abélard, still guiltless of Héloïse's ruin, thronged the gardens of Ste. Geneviève.

Henry I., king of England, dying in 1135, left the erown to his daughter Maude, who having survived her first husband, the Emperor of Germany, had afterward become the wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou. But her martial cousin, Stephen, count of Boulogne, claimed the English throne, and established himself thereon by force of will and force of arms. In revenge, Geoffrey Plantagenet, invoked the aid of William, duke of Aquitaine, and together they laid waste Normandy with fire and sword. The maledictions heaped on them by the suffering inhabitants reached the heart of even so hardened a sinner as William, and remorse took possession of his soul. Thus it happened, that, moved by the preaching of Saint Bernard, then Abbot of Clairvaux, the Duke fell penitently on his face, and, divesting himself of all his dominions in favor of his daughter Eleanor, undertook a pilgrimage to Compostella, in the course of which he died. Eleanor was thereupon affianced to the son of King Louis, who, with a splendid retinue, went to Aquitaine and celebrated the marriage, in 1137, the year in the course of which he ascended the throne.

Louis VII. at first exhibited a spirit not unequal in warlike enthusiasm to that which had distinguished his knightly father. He aided Geoffrey Plantagenet to conquer Normandy, checked the power of Stephen, and opposed the usurpations of the Pope. But in the midst of these successes he was induced to take part in an enterprise which proved fatal to his pride and his popularity.

In the previous century the pious zeal of an enthusiast, known as Peter the Hermit, had been elevated by a visit to Palestine to so lofty a pitch, that on returning to Europe he inflamed the minds of men with an eager desire to deliver the Holy Sepulchre from the Saracens. With that view, and countenanced by Pope Urban, a multitude of serfs, women, and laborers, assumed the cross, which was a piece of red stuff worn on the right shoulder, and under the guidance of Peter the Hermit, and a knight surnamed Walter the Penniless, went forth to perish of fatigue and hunger by the way. This band was succeeded by a disciplined host, led by Robert, son of William the Conqueror, Godfrey of Bouillon, the hero of the "Jerusalem Delivered," and Count Raymond. They were successful in founding a Christian state in Palestine. of which Godfrey became king, and the feudal system was thus organized in the East. Such was the first erusade: but the second was less favorable in its results.

Intelligence of the capture of Edessa having reach-

ed Europe, Bernard of Clairvaux called upon the Pope to unsheathe the sword of Christendom, and at the same time appealed to King Louis. In the spring of 1146 the saintly Abbot appeared at Vezelay, and on one of the hills near the town addressed an immense concourse, conspicuous in which were the King and Queen of France, surrounded by their barons and prelates. Never was an oratorical triumph more complete. His appeal was enthusiastically responded to by a simultaneous shout from the swelling hearts of the excited listeners, and they cast themselves at Bernard's feet to receive from his hands the blessed cross. Louis, eager to expiate the crime of a French army in burning the church of Vitry, set out forthwith at the head of a hundred thousand soldiers; but the whole expedition was marked by disaster, and having resolved itself into a devotional pilgrimage to the holy places, terminated in the return of Louis with a mere fragment of the noble army he had led forth under the national banner, with its flame-shaped edges and staff of gold.

The deplorable result of the second crusade totally changed the character of Louis, who became so soft and sluggish a monarch, that Queen Eleanor, a woman of high spirit, turbulent temper, and perverse disposition, was mortified with his loss of dignity. This led to important consequences; for, having procured a divorce, Eleanor gave her hand to Henry II. of England, son of the Empress Maude, the first of the

Plantagenet kings; and he acquired in her right, as heiress of Aquitaine, a vast tract of land, extending from the Loire to the Pyrenees.

It would indeed have been something novel in the history of human nature, if under such circumstances jealousy had not arisen between the two sovereigns; and war ere long broke out. While Henry was fighting with success on the Continent, his warlike baron, Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, was engaged with the conquest of Ireland; and Henry's position was rendered still more formidable by the capture and submission of William, king of Scots, when suddenly the French king found a potent auxiliary in Thomas à Becket, the Anglo-Saxon archbishop of Canterbury, who ultimately expiated his zeal for the Church and his determined hostility to the Crown, by falling at the foot of the altar, wounded with the swords of four Norman knights. From that day all went wrong with the King of England. Deserted by his wife, rebelled against by his sons, and humiliated by the clergy, his life became a continual scene of mortification.

Louis died after causing his eldest son to be crowned, and sealing an equivocal triumph over his royal rival by a pilgrimage to Becket's shrine; and Philip Augustus soon made his neighbors feel, that France was under a ruler at once more able and energetic than any of those who had reigned since the days of Charlemagne. By setting the sons against the father,

he continued an inveterate struggle with the active King of England, till Henry was succeeded by his son Richard, surnamed Caur de Lion.

At that time the heart of Christian Europe was beating with impatience for a third crusade; and no man was more zealous than the fiery, impetuous Richard. Having, therefore, obtained from the English what money he could, the royal knight-errant hastened to the Continent, to complete arrangements in concert with Philip. The two kings, as well as the Emperor of Germany, fared forth at the head of splendid and well-appointed armies; but their alliance was hollow, and disputes speedily arose. Philip and Richard quarreled while wintering in Sicily; and Richard, repudiating a matrimonial contract with Philip's sister, the Lady Alice, received as his bride Berengaria, daughter of the King of Navarre, whose beauty had inspired him with a romantic attachment. To make matters worse, the Emperor was drowned while crossing the river Senef; and after the capture of Acre the French king, finding that two stars of such magnitude as himself and Richard could not keep their motion in one sphere, withdrew amid the hisses and jeers of the Crusaders, returned home, and left his lion-hearted rival to pursue the career of glory, to earry on the war against Saladin, the heroic sultan of Egypt, and to fill the East with the fame of brilliant exploits.

After winning a series of victories, and exhausting

the patience of his brothers-in-arms, Richard signed a treaty with Saladin, and bent his steps homeward. Disguised as a merchant, and attended by a single page, he was resting from his fatigues at a village near Vienna, when forcibly seized by Leopold of Austria, whom he had insulted at Acre. The Duke sold his redoubted foe to the Emperor, who cast Richard into prison, and then informed the King of France that their dread enemy was immured and fettered in a mountain castle, with no other means of whiling away the tedious hours than exercising his art as a poet and troubadour in the composition of verses, or indulging his jovial disposition in a carouse with his armed guards.

Philip mourned not at the news, but soon after was visited at Paris by Richard's unworthy brother, John, with whom, in violation of a sacred pledge, he formed a scheme for the partition of the captive king's various dominions, and for the perpetuation of his durance. Their plots proved vain: for such was the indignation felt throughout Christendom that the boldest champion of the cross should languish in a dungeon, that the Emperor, yielding to European opinion and the Pope's threat of anathema, after exacting an enormous ransom, set the great Crusader free; and Philip, in alarm, wrote to his ally, Prince John, "Beware! for the devil has got loose."

Richard, restored to liberty, forgave his treacherous brother, but toward Philip he was by no means so charitable. Bent on revenge, he formed an alliance with the French barons, and, supported by the popular feeling in England, commenced a war, which was earried on with varying success till 1198, when the two kings met in arms near Gisors, and a fierce fight took place. Richard signally displayed his martial prowess, unhorsed three knights at a single charge, and drove the enemy across the Epte, in whose waters Philip, while flying, was well-nigh drowned. During a truce agreed to for the space of five years, one of the belligerents was cut off, in his forty-second year.

A peasant plowing in a field near Limoges, discovered a treasure, consisting of several remains of antiquity, the most curious of which was a massive golden ornament, representing an emperor with his family seated at table. The viscount of the district seized on these, and, in spite of Richard's claim as lord-paramount, refused to surrender the treasure. Richard invested the castle of Chaluz, within whose walls the relies were understood to be concealed; but on the fourth day of the siege, while riding round the fortress with no defensive armor save a breast-plate, his shoulder was pierced by an arrow from a cross-bow, and the slight wound proved fatal to the hero, at whose name monarchs had often grown pale.

Before going to Palestine, Richard had nominated Arthur, duke of Brittany, the son of his brother Geoffrey, as heir to his dominions; but subsequently he had been induced to favor the claims of Prince John, who, having secured the fealty of the English barons by fallacious promises, crossed to Normandy, of which he took temporary possession. King Philip was quite determined, for his own interest, that Arthur's claim should not be left unvindicated. He, therefore, espoused the boy-duke's cause, promised him a French princess in marriage, and came to a rupture with John. Hostilities commenced, but, unhappily, at the siege of Mirabeau, Arthur and his sister fell into the hands of their unnatural kinsman. The young princess, known as the Maid of Brittany, was sent to the castle of Bristol, where she remained a prisoner for life. The ill-fated Arthur was still more summarily dealt with. Being conveyed to Falaise, he was told by John to confide in him as a kind and loving uncle, but replied, with spirit and promptitude, that he must, in the first place, have his rightful inheritance, the kingdom of England. Thereupon John sent him to Rouen, with orders as to his being closely guarded: and going thither in the Easter of 1203, the usurper is reported to have then perpetrated that foul crime which has rendered his name infamous.

The tyrant having one day, at dinner, drunk freely, and lashed himself into fury, went to his nephew's prison, and after a futile attempt to force from the boy a surrender of his rights, drew a sword and malignantly murdered him, tied, with bloody hands, a heavy stone about his neek, and threw the corpse into the Seine. The body, being afterward cast ashore, was secretly interred in the abbey of Bec.

This atrocious crime roused general indignation, and John was summoned as a vassal of France, to answer for the murder before his peers, the great barons. Failing to appear when thus cited, he was pronounced guilty, and condemned to forfeit his continental domin-This sentence squared perfectly with Philip's ambitious views. The desire to establish his supremacy over the Norman rulers of England had ever been that aspiring monarch's ruling passion; and, infinitely rejoicing at the opportunity of gratifying it, he took up arms with a prescience of victory. John was passing his hours in scandalous indulgences at Rouen when Philip marched into Normandy, and, after capturing many towns and eastles, appeared before the capital. The tyrant, roused from his lair, fled to England, leaving the inhabitants of Rouen to defend themselves. After an effort, they yielded; and, ere a year passed, no continental soil, beyond his mother's province of Guienne, remained in possession of the sovereign of England.

After a year or two had passed, John plueked up courage to land an army at Rochelle, take a strong eastle, burn a town, ravage the banks of the Loire, and sit down before Nantes. Thither came Philip to offer battle; and John, raising the siege, advanced to accept the challenge. But in the hour of trial his heart shrunk within him: he pretended to negotiate, and meanwhile stealing away to England, exhibited the unwonted spectacle of a crowned descendant of

Roll the Walker flying before a kingly representative of Hugh Capet.

At this period was occurring the religious war against the Albigenses. In this crusade, which was led by Simon de Montfort, afterward killed while besieging Toulouse, Philip, albeit unscrupulous about persecuting Jews and blasphemers, refrained from taking part, even though the work of extermination was carried on by fire and sword under the auspices of the Church of Rome. Indeed, he repeatedly ventured on resisting the Pope's authority, especially in regard to his third marriage with Agnes de Meranie: but his realm being laid under interdict, and his subjects seized with terror, he was under the necessity of reluctantly submitting.

After a reign of forty years, during which he humbled the barons, encouraged literature, and embellished Paris, Philip died in 1233, leaving a son, Louis VIII., who only survived three years. While marching on Toulouse against the unfortunate Albigenses, he was carried off by an epidemie, and left his son, Louis IX., at the age of eleven years, under the guardianship of the widow, Blanche of Castile, a haughty but high-minded princess, who educated the youthful king with care, inspired that religious devotion which won him a place in the calendar of saints, and united him to Margaret of Provence, whose sister was Queen of England and mother of the first Edward.

Queen Blanche, during her boy's minority, held the

reins of power so vigorously, and was so faithfully supported by her devoted admirer, the Count of Champagne, that the power of the feudal barons was effectually curbed. But in 1242 they induced Henry III. to enter into their views; and he, landing with thirty casks of silver, mustered an army of foreigners, and regaled his fancy with the hope of regaining the provinces his father had lost. On the banks of the Charente, near the bridge of Taillebourg, Louis inflicted on his adversaries a signal defeat, and Henry retreated down the river to Saintes, before which town his motley force was so thoroughly beaten that he hurried from the seene of action. The English, though they had declined to support this war by men or money, did not learn without a blush of their king being twice defeated.

The crusades had not hitherto been so happy in their results as to tempt warriors again to the East; but Louis, stretched on a bed of sickness, swore to assume the cross in the event of recovery, and performed his vow in defiance of all dangers. Intrusting the regency to his mother, and receiving the oriflamme from the abbey of St. Denis, he embarked for the Holy Land. On arriving before Damietta he leaped into the sea, sword in hand, followed by a number of knights, and took possession of that Egyptian stronghold. There the rise of the Nile caused the Crusaders to delay for months their march on Mansourrah, where, in attempting to surprise the town, the

king's brother was slain by the Saracens; and Louis, after losing half his army, while retreating was taken by the enemy's galleys, chained in a dungeon, and informed that he must either die or abjure Christianity. There was still a glimmering of hope, however; for Queen Margaret held Damietta with a strong garrison, and she consented to give up the city and a large sum of money for her husband's freedom. Louis was thus restored to liberty, and lingered in Syria for several years. But his barons and knights betaking themselves home, he achieved nothing of importance.

At length, in 1253, on the death of his mother, the king returned to his realm, devoted his time to salutary reforms, and proved himself an able and conscientions legislator. Louis delighted to administer justice while seated under an oak-tree near his château in the forest of Vincennes. He established a public library in Paris, and an hospital for the blind; while at the same period the college was founded by Robert de Sorbon. But the attention of Louis being still bent toward Syria, he ventured on a second crusade; when, turning aside to attack the Bey of Tunis, he landed among the ruins of Carthage. There, after enduring severe hardships from the heat of the climate, Saint Louis expired on a bed of ashes in 1270.

Philip III., his eldest surviving son, though surnamed the Bold, did not perform any thing particularly memorable. He was long under the influence of his barber, Pierre; who, after figuring as prime min-

ister, dangled on a gibbet. After returning on a litter from a disastrous expedition in support of his uncle, Charles of Anjou, who had seized the crown of Sicily, he closed his earthly career in 1284, and was succeeded by his son, Philip IV. The young king, then in his sixteenth year, prosecuted the war which his father had commenced against Arragon; but the results were unimportant. Philip, though the most absolute and extortionate monarch that France had ever seen, summoned the Third Estate to the national assemblies, which had previously been composed of nobles and clergy. He likewise established Courts of Parliament —being judicial assemblies, over which that of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal. He courageously subjected the clergy to their share of the public burdens, and prohibited the agents of Rome from levying contributions within his dominions. The Pope ineautiously excommunicated Philip for these offenses, and even transferred the crown of France to the Emperor. Whereupon Philip undauntedly marched to Rome, and seized upon the successor of Peter, who died of surprise and indignation. From the next Pope, Benedict XI., Philip procured a bull, warranting the suppression of the Order of the Templars in all Christian countries. Having been charged with horrible crimes, these warrior monks-so long rich and powerful-were condemned without trial, and exterminated by the sword, fire, or famine. Their property was transferred to the Knights of Malta. In 1314 Philip closed his career, leaving three sons and a daughter, Isabella, who became the wife of the second Edward of England.

Louis X., eldest son of Philip, was a prince of disorderly life. Disliking his father's system of bestowing the high offices of state on men of obscure origin, he surrounded himself with luxurious nobles, who used their ascendency to obtain the restoration of their ancient privileges. Having, during his brief reign, weakened the monarchy, he died in 1316, leaving one daughter, who might have succeeded. But his brother Philip, after grasping the regency, procured a decree of the States-general, excluding females from the succession, and in virtue thereof became sovereign of France, with the prospect of the kingly dignity being inherited by his son.

Philip V. preserved peace, and devoted himself to the internal improvements of the realm. Several of his edicts indicate the progress of law, order, and civilization. But he was baffled in the object of settling his descendants on the throne; for his son dying before him, four daughters were excluded by the very decree he had in his eagerness procured, and the sceptre passed to his brother, Charles IV. That monarch, after aiding his sister, the English queen, to humble her husband, also expired without male heirs at the Christmas of 1327; and the crown then reverted to Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip the Bold.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY OF FRANCE.

With the accession of the House of Valois commenced a long struggle between England and France; not a series of mere feuds between kings for the sovereignty of provinces—like those which the Norman rulers of the English people had maintained against the successors of Hugh Capet—but great and terrible wars, waged for a century and a half, by kings genuinely English and kings thoroughly French, on behalf, and with the carnest sympathies, of two powerful countries, hostilely ambitious of national superiority.

Edward III., as nearest male heir to his uncles, who had last occupied the French throne, claimed the crown as his by hereditary descent, and resolved, right or wrong, to obtain it by force of arms. With this object, and having long before proved his skill and courage against the Scots—already the allies of France—he assembled an army; and after a signal victory over the French fleet, which lost ninety ships and thirty thousand men, he entered Normandy, and marched in hostile array to the very walls of Paris.

Philip of Valois was far from being destitute of personal courage, but he was as far from possessing sufficient knowledge of the military art to cope with an antagonist of so much valor, talent, and policy. However, he summoned his nobles, and, in alliance with the old blind King of Bohemia, assembled a formidable force; which, on an August Saturday, met the embattled host of England at the village of Creev. With far inferior numbers Edward gained a complete victory; and Philip, followed by five knights, fled to Abbeville. Edward besieged and took Calais, which continued in possession of England till the reign of "the bloody Mary;" and the capture of that important stronghold, together with the exhaustion of the French finances, resulted in a truce, which lasted till 1350; at which date the grave closed over Philip, and his son John ascended the throne.

King John the Good was as valiant a knight as ever laid lance in rest, and as true a son of chivalry as was ever taught to serve God and the ladies, but much too irresolute and improvident to rule with success at a difficult crisis. About the commencement of his reign he violently seized the Constable of France, and caused him to be executed without trial; and he despotically confiscated to his own use the debts due to the Jews and Lombards settled in his kingdom. Edward vowed to avenge the fate of the Constable, who had been a prisoner on parole; and about the same time Charles, king of Navarre, declared war

against France. In order to raise funds, the King convoked the States-general at Paris in 1355; and the Third Estate, after having its equality with the nobles and clergy formally recognized, and redressing grievances, concurred in furnishing the sinews of war. They were, indeed, necessary: for Edward, prince of Wales, who at the age of fifteen had gloriously signalized his prowess at Crecy, and was now known as the Black Prince from the color of his armor, soon appeared in France with sixty thousand men; and John, swearing that he would give the young Islander battle, mustered his army on the plain of Chartres, and encountered the foe, on a September morning, near the city of Poictiers. John sustained a most disastrous defeat, and his army fled precipitately before the English archers. The French monarch fought on foot with a battle-ax, and exhibited singular courage: but after receiving two wounds in the face, and being beaten down, he yielded his sword and was carried by his youthful conqueror as a prisoner to London.

During his captivity, while famine, pestilence, disbanded soldiers, and civil war, were desolating the sunny fields of France, there occurred an insurrection, at once revolting and instructive. The condition of the rural peasantry had ever been wretched, and they at length rose in a mass to avenge their wrongs. Half-naked serfs, entering feudal castles, killed the territorial magnates, outraged their wives and daugh-

ters, forced children to eat the flesh of their parents and burned and plundered wherever they went. This terrible outbreak, which is known in history as the Jacquerie—from Jacques Bonnehomme, a name applied in derision to the French peasantry—was suppressed with the aid of the King of Navarre, whose mail-clad men slaughtered thousands of the defense-less insurgents.

John, in 1360, signed an agreement, whereby he obtained his liberty on condition of paying three millions of golden crowns, while Edward resigned his pretensions to the French throne. Soon after his return home, by the demise of Philip de Rouvre, duke of Burgundy, that important province reverted to the crown, and, blind to the advantages of this acquisition, the King bestowed the duchy on his fourth son, Philip the Bold, and thus established that house of Burgundy whose chiefs, as years passed, became formidable rivals to the sovereigns of France. Incited by the Pope, John assumed the cross at Avignon, and was on the point of joining a new crusade undertaken by the King of Cyrus, when he was informed of his son, the Duke of Anjou, who had been given as a hostage, having broken his word and fled from Calais. The chivalrous monarch, to whom is ascribed the fine maxim, so rarely practiced, that if honor were banished from all the rest of the world it ought still to be found in the heart of sovereigns, considered himself bound to return to England, where, consoled with the love of an English lady, he resided till his death in 1364. He left twenty volumes, with which his successor founded the royal library.

Charles V., who had already governed France for eight years as regent, became king at the age of twenty-nine. He attached to his service several able statesmen, as well as brave captains-Du Gueselin being among the latter. Thus Charles, who was one of the most literate men of his time, won the title of the Wise. His first successes were achieved against the King of Navarre; and he next aided in driving Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, into exile. He then applied himself to wrench from the English the provinces they held in France. The period was most propitious, for Edward was by this time old, and the heroic Black Prince suffering from a mortal disease. Under such eircumstances the enterprises of the French were, in the main, successful; but a fresh army of English had been sent into the kingdom, when Charles suddenly died in 1380, leaving as heir to the crown a boy of eleven years.

Charles VI. was consigned to the guardianship of his uncles, who agreed that the office of regent should be held by the Duke of Anjou. That prince was of so fierce and covetous a nature, that, bursting into the royal bed-chamber, almost before his brother's eyes were closed, he greedily seized upon the jewels, and plundered the palace. The first act of his regency was to appropriate to himself a sum of sixteen

millions, which, during the reign of Charles V., had been amassed in the treasury; and with this money he fitted out an expedition to seize upon the throne of Naples, in the course of which both the Duke and his army perished in Italy. Under the inspiration of his surviving uncles, the young king was guilty of various tyrannies; and he was still pursuing a most unpopular career, when he suddenly exhibited infallible signs of insanity. The consequences were disastrous; and the country was suffering under an accumulation of evils, when, in 1415, Henry V., who had just ascended the English throne, east off his dissipated habits and become a hero, landed near Harfleur, took that town after a siege of six weeks, and then, with an army which sickness had diminished to nine thousand, marched toward Calais. On the 24th of October, however, after crossing the Somme, he was challenged by the Constable of France, who, with sixty thousand fighting men, occupied the village of Agincourt; and next day at noon, having made all preparations, Henry placed a golden crown over his steel helmet, donned a surcoat, on which were embroidered the arms of England and France, rode along his lines on a gray charger, and declared his resolution to conquer or die. He then spoke the words, "Banners, advance!" and the English, with a loud cheer, rushed onward. The archers did terrible execution; the men-at-arms diplayed equal courage; and, after a fierce struggle, the English were completely victorious. They embarked at Calais, with much booty and a host of noble captives; and, two years later, Henry, returning with a gallant army, subdued Normandy-and pursuing his eareer, concluded, in 1420, the famous treaty of Troyes, by which it was stipulated that he should marry Catherine, daughter of the French monarch, and inherit on the death of Charles the crown of France. Henry's brother-in-law, the Dauphin, reduced to extreme distress, hardly knew where to turn for a dinner, and wandered from place to place about the southern provinces. Perplexed in the extreme, he craved aid from the Scots, who readily granted him the service of seven thousand men, under the Earls of Buchan and Wigton. The Duke of Clarence, Henry's brother, met the Scots at Beaugé, and the latter, ardent to disprove the annoying charge made by their French allies, of being only fit to eat and drink, fought with great energy. Clarence, recognized by his coronet of gold which glistened in the evening sun, was borne to the ground by the lance of Sir John Swinton, and killed by the mace of Buchan. The English, seeing their leader fall, desisted from the conflict; and after this victory Buchan was nominated Marshal, and Wigton Constable of France.

The King of England was at Beverley when he heard of this defeat, and straightway crossed to France to redeem it. In order to sever the Scots from their allies, he carried with him, as a volunteer, their cap-

tive sovereign, James I., without, however, deterring his subjects from action. Henry's presence changed the face of matters; but, in the midst of his glories, he was cut off by a mysterious malady, and named as regent his brother, the Duke of Bedford—Shakspeare's Prince John of Lancaster.

Falstaff, in the page of that greatest of dramatists, is made to pronounce the royal youth one of those demure boys who never come to any proof; but the opinion of the fat knight was completely falsified. Bedford was recognized throughout Europe as a statesman of ability and a soldier of renown, and performed his functions with valor as well as judgment. The duty became more arduous on the death of the French monarch, for Henry VI. of England was a mere infant; yet Bedford succeeded in attaching to his interest the Dukes of Brittany and Burgundy, so that when the Dauphin assumed the title of Charles VII. he was so contemptible in point of power as to be called, in derision, the King of Berry, from his residence at Bourges. Nevertheless, Charles was aided by fresh troops from Scotland, under the Earl of Douglas, an aged warrior, who had fought without success at Homeldon and Shrewsbury, and who now tried his fortune at Verneuil. But the army that went into the field was defeated with enormous loss; the cause of Charles appeared desperate; and a final blow seemed to be struck when the Scots were vanquished before Orleans in the battle of Herrings.

At this crisis appeared Joan of Arc, celebrated as the Maid of Orleans, who excited the popular enthusiasm by announcing that internal voices had commanded her to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct the Dauphin to be crowned at Rheims. Being brought into his presence, she repeated her preternatural mandate; and Charles provided her with a suit of armor, and sent her to join his troops. The French hailed her arrival as that of a being raised up by Heaven for their deliverance; while the English, having a totally different opinion as to her origin, were terrified at the idea of combating with an agent of the powers of darkness. Inspired by her example, the French soldiers were successful in various enterprises. But being taken prisoner at the siege of Compiègne, she was burned by her captors as a sorceress. Her death caused a detestation of the English rule, which even the presence of young Henry could not overcome. In 1435 the Regent Bedford departed this life; the Duke of Burgundy seized that occasion to break with the English; the French were at last thoroughly united; the Dauphin threw off his indolence; and Paris, opening her gates, received him as King.

Charles VII. governed with wisdom and prudence, though he was somewhat despotie, and levied supplies without summoning the States-general, whom he feared. Commerce began to flourish; agriculture was carried on with success; the King was hailed as the restorer of order; and he secured the liberties of the

Gallican Church by promulgating the Pragmatic Sanction. The princes of the blood, with Louis the Dauphin, in 1440, raised a revolt, termed the Praguerie, which was soon suppressed. Internal peace being established, Charles succeeded in driving the English out of Normandy and Guienne, and raised a standing army of twenty-five thousand men. The close of his life was embittered by the suspicions he entertained of the crafty Dauphin, who had sought refuge at the court of Philip, duke of Burgundy. The King became possessed with a morbid dread of being poisoned by his son's emissaries; and at length refusing to take food, he died of hunger, in his fifty-eighth year.

Louis XI., a man of crafty and subtle character, and with a profound knowledge of human nature, exercised no slight influence on his age. Conscious of the dislike felt toward him by the nobles, he commenced his reign with popular promises to reduce the taxes and submit the national expenditure to the States-general, which he never performed. Though vicious, cruel, and superstitious, Louis was, in some respects, an admirable politician. He encouraged commerce, regulated the courts of justice, established the first printing-press in Paris, was the author of postal communication, and restrained the power of his overgrown feudatories—the Dukes of Brittany and Burgundy. Francis of Brittany, having invited Edward IV. of England to invade France, was attacked

and compelled to submit. Charles of Burgundy, a rash and violent man, was thrice defeated by the Swiss, whose country he sought to subjugate, and falling in battle, his fief was seized by Louis; but Mary, daughter and heiress of the fiery duke, being the wife of Maximilian of Austria, claimed Burgundy as a fief not limited to males. An indecisive battle at Guinnegate was followed by a treaty, which betrothed the daughter of Maximilian to the Dauphin. Louis thus retained his prize, and soon after, under the will of King René, inherited Provence and the empty title of Sovereign of the Two Sicilies.

As he grew old, Louis became nervously apprehensive of death. Surrounded by his Swiss corps and Scotch guard, and in the company of his barber and his gossip, the strange man lived hidden in his chateau, cheating himself into the belief that gross superstition was religion, and that the most solemn oaths might be violated if not sworn upon a certain relic. wretched life closed in 1483, and the sceptre passed to his son, Charles VIII., who, after a turbulent minority, espoused Anne, the young Duchess of Brittany, and thus brought back her fief to the crown. The young monarch had, like Don Quixote, brooded over tales of chivalry till he believed them to be real, and conceived a burning desire to emulate the exploits of Charlemagne. With this view he thought of conquering Constantinople, but limiting his ambition for the present to Naples, he commenced those

wars which shook the foundations, tortured the industry and diminished the wealth of the Italian States.

In the year 1494, having borrowed money from the bankers of Milan and Genoa, Charles, with an army of thirty-two thousand men, and the best artillery in Europe, crossed the Alps. The dismembered state of Italy was favorable to his schemes. Pisa and Florence opened their gates to him as an ally, and he entered those cities as a conqueror. Then besieging Rome, he forced the Pope to submit, entered Naples in triumph, and received the submission of all Sicily. Meantime a league to check his progress being formed by the Pope with Spain, Austria, and Venice, Charles, on being informed of this by the celebrated Comines, sounded a retreat; his troops were soon after driven north of the Alps, and he died at the age of twentyeight. Leaving no children, the crown reverted to Louis, duke of Orleans, great-grandson of Charles V., who began to reign in 1498.

Louis XII. had attained the age of thirty-six when he came to the throne, and his earliest acts were wise and beneficent. He behaved with magnanimity toward those who had been his enemies in former days, declaring that the wrongs of the Duke of Orleans were forgotten by the King of France; and he devised measures to restore order in the finances and administration. When accused by the court of parsimony, he calmly remarked, that he would rather see the courtiers laughing at his avariee than the people weeping

at his profusion; and he was rewarded by the Statesgeneral with the proud and noble title of "Father of his people."

In his foreign policy, this king was less worthy of eulogy. In order to attach Brittany to the crown, he procured a divorce from the deformed daughter of the crafty Louis XI., and espoused Anne, duchess of Brittany, who, on the decease of her husband, Charles, had returned into her province, and hastened to exercise acts of sovereignty. Ambitious of increasing his territory, he applied himself with eagerness to the conquest of Naples. Having secured the support of Pope Alexander, and crossed the Alps, he took Milan and Genoa; when, apprehensive of the interference of Spain, he invited Ferdinand to a partition of Naples, and that politic sovereign dispatched to his assistance the renowned Gonsalvo de Cordova, the conqueror of Grenada, who introduced the Spaniards into the principal fortresses. But this alliance was of brief duration; for the French and Spaniards quarreling, Cordova defeated the heroic Chevalier Bayard, and deprived Louis of his division of Naples.

About this period, the death of Pope Alexander, closely followed by his son, Cæsar Borgia—men whose names are associated with countless crimes—deprived Louis of his most powerful ally; but, in spite of all reverses, his eyes were still turned toward Italy, when Genoa, offended at the haughty bearing of her foreign masters, rose in revolt and expelled the French.

Louis vowing vengeance, appeared in 1507 under her walls, entered the gates sword in hand, hanged several of the citizens, and inflicted on the republic a ruinous fine.

The martial Pope Julius, in 1508, projected the League of Cambray, which was entered into by the Kings of France, Spain, and Hungary, for the destruction of Venice, and a division of the territories of that wealthy and high-flying republic. The French thereupon marched against the devoted city, gained a victory at Agnadello; and Venice was on the verge of annihilation, when the Pope, who had used his allies merely to render his sway universal in Italy, formed the Holy League with the Venetians, the Swiss, and the Kings of Spain and England, against the French. Their united forces attacked the army of Louis, which under his brave and impetuous nephew, Gaston de Foix, won several victories. But the young hero, perishing in his fame at Ravenna, Louis was under the necessity of abandoning Italy. Genoa revolted. Ferdinand of Spain not only conquered Navarre, but formed, along with Henry of England, the Pope, and the Emperor Maximilian, the League of Malins. After a struggle, Louis signed a peace in 1514, and at the same time espoused the Princess Mary of England; but dying on the 1st January, 1515, without male issue, the crown went to his cousin and son-in-law, Francis, duke of Angouléme.

Francis I., so renowned for his bravery, gallantry,

and magnificence, was twenty years of age when he assumed the sceptre, and directed his ambition to the conquest of Milan. In order to accomplish his object, he assembled an army of thirty-five thousand These were commanded by several eminent warriors, of whom the most accomplished were the Constable Bourbon, and Bayard the chevalier sans peur et sans reproche; and they crossed the Alps by a way never before attempted. The surprise and capture of Colonna, the Milanese general, while he sat at table, threw confusion into the enemy's ranks; but the Swiss rushing from their mountains fiercely attacked the invaders at Marignano. Brandishing their long pikes and ponderous two-handed swords, they rushed with impetuosity on the French artillery, and soon succeeded in cutting off Francis from his soldiers; but he fought like a hero of romance, and his troops closing their ranks, the Swiss were forced to retire after a bloody contest, during which twelve thousand of them Next day, Francis having fairly won his spurs, took knighthood from the sword of the Chevalier Bayard, and this decisive victory was followed by the rapid subjugation of Milan, and an important alliance with the Swiss.

Leo X., son of Lorenzo de Medici the Magnificent, now occupied the papal throne, and distinguished himself as the patron of art and literature. With him Francis signed a concordat, by which he agreed to the abolition of the Pragmatic Sauction.

At this date, a rival to the chivalrous King of France arose in the person of Charles of Austria, who on the death of his maternal grandfather, Ferdinand, in 1516, ascended the throne of Spain. The first transaction between these great princes, whose emulation was to deluge Europe with blood, was a treaty of alliance, whereby Charles engaged to espouse the infant daughter of Francis when she attained her twelfth year; but the election of the young King of Spain to the Imperial throne in opposition to the claims of Francis, produced an immediate change of relations, and the peaceful treaty was utterly disregarded.

Francis, whose pride was deeply wounded, demanded the restoration of Naples, which had been seized by Ferdinand; while Charles, in retaliation, claimed Milan and the duchy of Burgundy, as the inheritance of his ancestress, Mary, the daughter and heiress of Charles the Rash. Both of the rival monarchs courted with so much eagerness the support of Henry VIII. of England, that, in a spirit of exultation, he adopted for motto, "He whom I defend is master." In the first instance Henry manifested an inclination toward an alliance with Francis, and on the marches of Calais held with him a series of conferences, so distinguished by all the pomp and splendor of the age, that the scene was henceforth called "the field of the cloth of gold."

The hostile sovereigns, in 1521, betook themselves to action. Francis commenced hostilities by an attack

on the little kingdom of Navarre, which was invaded and ravaged; while the armies of Charles, after taking Mouson and Tournay, drove the French out of Milan. Amid these operations Pope Leo died, and Charles not only seated Adrain VI. in the chair of St. Peter, but by tempting Wolsey with the prospect of the pontifical tiara, succeeded through the aspiring cardinal in making Henry change sides.

At this critical period, the indiscretion of Louise of Savoy, mother of Francis, involved him in a most serious loss. Louise, at the age of forty-eight, weary of widowhood, became enamored of the Constable Bourbon, who was considerably her junior, and taking the initiative in love, offered to accompany him to the hymeneal altar. Bourbon rejected the proposal, with a scornful allusion to the fact of her being stricken in years. The amorous dame, deeply mortified, vowed revenge, and prevailed on Francis to deprive the Constable of his possessions. No step could have been more imprudent. Bourbon entered into correspondence with the Emperor, and was soon at the head of the Imperial troops.

The French frontiers, now assailed simultaneously by the English, Spanish, and German armies, were successfully defended; and in the presence of so many dangers the gallant spirit of Francis rose high, and his aspiration still pointed to the sovereignty of Italy. He therefore dispatched an army to capture Milan, but his troops were reduced to the necessity of retreating-

On that memorable occasion the French rearguard was commanded by the illustrious Bayard, who, mortally wounded by a shot, ordered himself to be laid at the root of a tree, to die with his face to the foc. The Constable Bourbon receiving intelligence of the melancholy event, hastened forward and expressed his condolence. "It is not I who should be pitied," exclaimed the expring chevalier, as the fire within for a last time lighted up his glazing eye; "but you—you, who fight against your country, your king, and your God!"

Bourbon, advancing, overran Provence, till his progress was checked at Marseilles, which after heroically sustaining a siege of forty days, was relieved by the approach of Francis, who thence marched into Italy, and encamped before Pavia. Francis had been there for three months when the Imperial forces approached, in February 1525, and he awaited them within his lines. At first the French artillery played upon the Imperial troops with an effect so deadly, that they retired so seek shelter in a hollow hard by. The impetuous monarch, mistaking their retreat for flight, charged at the head of his knights, and was suddenly in the midst of the enemy. He fought with romantic valor; but wounded, covered with blood, and flung from his courser, he gave up his sword, along with Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre. Francis, after writing to his mother the celebrated letter in which, with his natural elevation of character, he said, "Madam, all is lost save honor," was by order of the Emperor conveyed to Madrid.

And now Charles had in his grasp the only living prince who was daring and potent enough to challenge his supremacy or check his career; and he seemed determined to make the most of a circumstance so advantageous. For a time he refused even to see his captive rival; but Francis falling sick, the Emperor relented, visited him in prison, and consoled him with words of kindness. The consequence of their intercourse was the treaty of Madrid, by which Francis regained his liberty on condition of yielding to Charles the duchy of Burgundy, and his right of feudal superiority over Flanders and Artois. Francis gave his two sons as hostages; but the States refusing to sanction any such alienation of territory, the matter was -not without a loss of honor on the King's partcompromised by a sum of money.

Hostilities broke out in 1527 with redoubled violence. The Imperialists laid siege to Rome, and Bourbon was killed while placing a ladder to scale the ramparts; but his fall was avenged by the sack of the city, the massacre of the inhabitants, and the incarceration of the Pope. These occurrences kindled the religious ire of Henry of England, who, in conjunction with Francis, resolved to liberate the Pontiff and Italy from the Emperor's colossal grasp. This expedition proved peculiarly disastrous; but Charles was so hard pressed at the time by the Lutherans on one hand and the Turks on the other, that he moderated his pretensions and signed a treaty, which being negotiated by Margaret of Austria and Louise of Savoy, was derisively described as "the Ladies' Peace." The mother of Francis dying soon after this transaction, left a prodigious sum of hoarded treasure, a large portion of which he expended to attract artists and men of letters from Italy, and thus earned the reputation of being the "Father and Restorer of Letters."

Europe was already torn by the religious strife which preceded the Reformation, and Francis was at first undecided which side to take. His court was divided in opinion; and the Protestant principles were supported by his distinguished sister, the Queen of Navarre. But having still the conquest of Milan in view, and being reluctant, therefore, to break with the supreme Pontiff, Francis determined on adhering to the ancient faith. Moreover, he sought a personal interview with Clement VII. at Marseilles; and there gave a pledge of his fidelity in a compact by which his second son, Henry, was united to the Pope's niece, Catherine de Medici.

Unfortunately the Reformers of Paris, in an evil hour, affixed to the doors of the King's palace a placard containing a violent invective against the mass. The haughty spirit of Francis could not brook the insult thus offered to his creed as a Christian, or to his dignity as a King, and resolved to have his revenge. Accordingly, on a January day, in 1555, when

Henry VIII. was constituting himself head of the Church of England, and when Ignatius Loyola was instituting the Society of the Jesuits, a countless multitude thronged the streets, and balconies, and housetops of the capital, which, since the accession of Francis, had assumed a new and improved aspect. And from the church of St. Germain there issued a procession, headed by cardinals, bishops, and abbots, before whom were carried sacred relics, and behind whom marched the King, with his head bare and a torch in his hand. Then followed the Queen, the Princes of the blood, the embassadors, the various officers of state, and two hundred gentlemen. Traversing the city, they halted in each of the six squares, where were erected altars, on which the sacrament was administered to faithful sons of Rome, side by side with fiery furnaces for the destruction of heretics. Six being selected as sacrifices were, amidst the curses and hooting of the populace, fastened to an elevated machine, so constructed with a pivot as to lower the victim to the flames, and then by raising him aloft for a while to prolong the tortures by repeated immersions in this bath of fire. On that cruel spectacle Francis gazed with an idea that he was doing God a service; and then falling on the ground, he supplicated the blessing of Heaven on his subjects. When the ceremony was closed by the performance of mass, there was served a banquet, where the King presiding, declared his determination to extirpate heresy, and not even to spare the lives of his own children, if they strayed from the fold of Rome. Soon after a royal edict appeared, proscribing all Protestants, confiscating their property, and menacing with death any of them who should print a book.

Vain, assuredly, proved the prohibition; for John · Calvin, though denied a residence in the dominions of Francis, was no farther away than the banks of the Rhine. While a mere boy, that eminent Reformer, who, to a despotic intellect, added a natural impatience of contradiction, had been presented to a benefice; but while searching the Scriptures, with reason for his guide, he had arrived at opinions utterly at variance with the doctrines of Rome. Banished from Paris by the Doctors of the Sorbonne, Calvin fled to the vicinity of Poitiers, and in the recesses of a dark cave near the little river Clain, for a time preached the Gospel. Compelled at length to quit the soil of France, he sought refuge at Basil in Switzerland, celebrated as the town where the art of making paper was first exercised, and where Holbein, the famous painter, first saw the light. While residing at Basil, Calvin read the apology written by Francis to his allies, the Lutherans of Germany, in which the Protestants of France were represented as resembling in their views the Anabaptists, whom John of Leyden was then heading at Munster. Calvin's temper, according to his own account, was by no means celestial; and on this occasion, with logic for his weapon, he indignantly sat down with his characteristic industry to defend the right. Ere the harvest-moon was reflected in the waters of the Seine, his "Institution Chrétienne," dedicated to the King of France, was published. The treatise was received by the French Protestants as a text-book; and the author, soon after established at Geneva, was recognized as the apostle of the Reformation in France.

While war was raging between Francis and the Emperor, the Dauphin suddenly died from the effects of poison. A cup-bearer being put to the rack, named Charles as his accomplice; and Francis led an army of fifty thousand men to support the Turkish invasion of Italy, when the Pope prevailed on the belligerents not only to consent to a peace, but to have a friendly meeting, which accordingly took place. Ere long Charles, in passing from Spain to Flanders, visited his rival's dominions, and was magnificently entertained. It appears that the Emperor's situation was not quite pleasant; for his detention was so probable, that the courtiers mocked and laughed at their sovereign's respect for the rights of hospitality. When the king's jester heard of the arrival of Charles in Provence, that privileged functionary remarked that he had inscribed the Emperor on his tablets in the list of fools.

"But suppose," asked Francis, "that I let him pass free, what then?"

The jester looked wise, shook his head, and replied,

"In that case I'll blot out his name from my tablets, and put yours in its stead."

Francis, however, allowed the Emperor to depart in peace, and the Emperor promised to invest the second son of his rival with the duchy of Milan; but as he refused to fulfill the engagement verbally made to that effect with the Constable Montmorency, the King of France renewed the war with more than the old hatred and animosity. Allying himself with the Turks, their fleets attacked Nice, but were repulsed by the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, whom Francis had formerly driven from his service. Charles, with an army of eighty thousand men, penetrated into Champagne; and Henry of England, equally fickle in warlike, amatory, and ecclesiastical alliances, sent an army to attack Picardy. Nevertheless, the French were victorious at Cerisoles in Piedmont, and Fortune favored them against this double invasion; for dissension and want of provision in the Imperial ranks made Charles too glad to terminate the war by the treaty signed at Crespy in 1544. Francis, on the brink of his grave, was guilty of new severities against his Protestant subjects. He sent into Provence the Baron Ompeda, who, among the unfortunate Vaudois, enacted scenes of ernelty that threw the doings of Montfort into the shade. Twenty-two towns and villages were given to the flames; the timber was cut down; the fruit-trees were torn up by the root; and the inhabitants slain in cold blood, or burned with their houses.

At the time, these atrocities were supposed to be

committed with the sanction of Francis, but when dying, in 1547, his day-dreams passing away, he declared that Ompeda had far exceeded his instructions. Henry II., eldest surviving son and heir of the gallant but faulty monarch, ascended the throne at the age of twenty-nine, and was soon involved in a war with the Emperor. On the abdication of that mighty prince, however, a truce for five years was agreed to with his successor, Philip; and the French people, fatigued and exhausted with perpetual contests, rejoiced in the prospect of repose.

Vain was the hope! A quarrel between the Pope and Philip speedily dissipated these dreams. The most Christian sovereign of France was called to rescue his Holiness from the fangs of the most Catholic King; and while one French army, under the Constable Montmorency, entered Artois and was defeated at St. Quentin, another, under the Duke of Guise, after invading Italy captured Calais, which had been in possession of the English for more than two centuries. A peace, signed in 1559, put an end to the wars, which, for fourscore years, had utterly exhausted the finances of France, while they desolated the fruitful plains and the wealthy cities of Italy.

The absence of an Inquisition and the foreign wars had recently saved the Huguenots of France from the persecutions to which Protestants were subject in other countries. Thus many persons of high rank had given in their adhesion to the reformed doctrines. The King, however, had sworn to eradicate heresy, when, in 1559, he was killed in the pride of manhood at a tournament by a wound in his eye from the lance of Count Montgomery, captain of the Guards.

Francis II., son of the graceful, luxurious, and good-humored monarch thus accidently slain, was then a boy of sixteen; and among his subjects no family was more aspiring than that of Guise, though its founder, Claude of Lorraine, had as recently as the reign of Louis XII., left his native district with a staff in his hand and one servant behind him, to improve his condition in a wealthier region. It would seem that the adventurous Claude had taken the tide of his affairs at the flood which leads on to fortune; and in any ease he left a numerous progeny, who found it convenient to claim for him a descent from Charlemagne. Of his children the most conspicuous were Francis, duke of Guise, a warrior of high courage, and as little troubled with scruples as fears; Charles, cardinal of Lorraine, who, to a cowardly temperament, united much prescience, subtlety, and ambition; and Mary, who, after figuring as the wife of James V. of Scotland, had, as Queen-regent of that realm, maintained for the interests of France an obstinate struggle against the Protestant Lords, whose iron hands seconded the preaching of Knox in shattering the ancient fabric of superstition and tyranny. This royal dame was mother of the beautiful and unfortunate Mary Stuart, who had been recognized as Queen of

Scots at the age of a week; affianced to Edward, prince of Wales, before a year had passed over her head; fought for at Pinkey while an infant in the eradle; and removed in childhood to be educated at the court of France. The Duke and the Cardinal perceiving how their niece might advance their ambitious views, bestowed her on the sickly Dauphin. On the latter becoming king they propitiated Catherine de Medici by sacrificing their benefactress, the notorious Diana of Poitiers. They shared the supreme power with that Italian woman, so skillful in falsehood and unscrupulous in intrigue, and did whatever their unfaltering ambition or gross bigotry dictated.

Against this usurpation of all authority there was soon formed a confederacy, at the head of which were the Bourbon princes—the feeble and mutable Anthony. who, in right of his spouse, was titular King of Na. varre, and his brother, Louis of Condé—with the Admiral Coligny and the Constable Montmorency. Their conspiracy of Amboise terminated so fatally for the Huguenots, that the waters of the Loire ran purple with Protestant blood; but while fresh plots were being formed and civil strife seemed imminent, the poor young King was cut off by a languishing malady. His brother Charles succeeded at the age of ten; and his mother, Catherine de Medici, assuming the Regency, entered upon the darkest stage of her terrible and mysterious eareer. At first, with Italian guile, she trimmed between the two religious parties; feigned a desire to be converted, appointed Anthony of Navarre to be Lieutenant-general of France, and balanced the princes of the house of Bourbon against those of the family of Guise. She even, by the Edict of January 1562, framed by the Chancellor l'Hôpital, granted the Huguenots permission to worship outside the walls of fortified cities, and gave them legal protection against reproach or interruption.

Anthony of Navarre now seceded from the lead of the Huguenots, and entered into a scheme for their suppression with the King of Spain and the Duke of Guise. However, his brother Condé was a little more faithful to the Protestant cause; and the court favordisplayed, in spite of his heresy, toward that prince, excited the jealousy of the Catholics so much, that they hastily summoned Guise from Joinville to Paris. While traveling through Champagne in company with his brother the Cardinal, the Duke chanced to ride near the village of Vassy, just as the church bells were ringing and assembling the Huguenots to their religious exercises. The irascible Duke forgot all about the Ediet of January, and, sword in hand, dashed into the congregation with his armed retinue; while the Cardinal, whose heart shrank within him at the thought of blows and bloodshed, crept behind a wall for shelter. The Huguenots attempted to defend themselves with stones, and Guise was wounded in the cheek. The attendants, at his bidding, then slew sixty Protestants, besides wounding a great number;

and this massacre, performed in defiance of all law, by a nobleman who aspired to the crown, became the signal for a religious war.

Intoxicated with this taste of Protestant blood, Guise entered Paris with the port and bearing of a conqueror, and was so enthusiastically received by a deluded populace, that Catherine, in alarm, invoked the aid of the Hugnenot chiefs, and implored Condé to protect her and her son—to save the mother and the child. It was too late, however, for Guise carried off the young king from Fontainebleau; while the Constable Montmorency, whose Catholic zeal, when stimulated by the recollection of his ancestor having been the first Christian magnate in France, swallowed up all other considerations, advanced into the suburbs of Paris at the head of his army, attacked the Huguenot pastors, and set fire to their chapels, amidst the frantic yells of a fanatical multitude.

Civil war having been thus commenced, both parties had recourse to foreign powers for aid. Philip of Spain, who had married the King's sister, sent troops to support Guise, while Condé and Coligny were strengthened by Queen Elizabeth and by the Palatinate. Ere long the armies of Condé and Montmorency were drawn up in hostile lines near the town of Dreux. Coligny assailed the opposing squadrons so effectually, that Montmorency was taken. But while the Catholics were flying and the Huguenots dispersing in pursuit, the Duke of Guise, at the head of his fiery

cavalry, charged down upon the scattered bands with such rapidity, that Condé was captured, and the rout turned into a victory. Guise then laid siege to Orleans; but while there he was killed by the pistol of Poltrôt, an assassin, who, being put to the torture, in his excruciations accused Coligny as an accomplice. The charge thus made was unsupported by any proof and opposed by all probability, but it was believed by Henry, the son and heir of the murdered Duke, who swore to avenge the deed.

Catherine at this stage procured, through the facile Condé, a cessation of hostilities, on terms very far from satisfactory to the leading Huguenots, who certainly gained little by putting their trust in princes. But in 1567, alarmed at preparations for their destruction, they determined to anticipate their enemies. Their movement was marvelously sudden. One September day, Coligny might have been seen in the dress of a husbandman occupied with getting in his vintage, and in forty-eight hours he was in possession of fifty towns. The King, escaping from Monceaux, fled to Paris, the cavalry of Condé ever visible in the rear of his Swiss guards. Then came the battle on the plain of St. Denis, where, in November 1567, Montmorency fell, though his side triumphed, followed by that of Jarnac, where, on the 16th March, 1569, the young Duke of Anjou, afterward Henry III., but then in his eighteenth year, and counseled by Strozzi, an Italian soldier of fortune, encountered and defeated the Huguenots. Condé, having had his leg broken in the action, was taken and treacherously shot.

The Catholics were thus triumphant; but the pious and courageous Jean d'Albret, widowed Queen of Navarre-for Anthony had fallen at Rouen-repaired to the town of Saintes, and animated the wreck of the Huguenot army with her own lofty and masculine spirit. Thither she brought her son Henry, from the fields of Béarn, where he had spent his childhood. The royal boy had not yet seen his sixteenth summer, but his knowledge of men was already considerable, and his courage of the highest order. He was enthusiastically proclaimed General-in-chief, and gallantly distinguished himself in the battle of Roehe-Abeille, where his party had the advantage. But at Montcontour the fortune of the day was different, and the Huguenots were exposed to fearful carnage. Coligny, though severely wounded, fought like a hero; and ever skillful in repairing his disasters, conducted the remnant of his army into Languedoe, where they were joined by the troops of the brave Montgomery. Thus sufficiently formidable to demand honorable terms, the Huguenots marching toward Paris, obtained by the treaty of St. Germain a confirmation of the privileges formerly enjoyed, and the possession of four cities, of which Rochelle was the chief.

The order that for a time prevailed was peculiarly grateful to a people wearied with a sanguinary struggle, that had not only desolated both city and plain, but filled the country with fierce predatory bands, dilapidated its finances, and destroyed its commerce. Moreover, every blandishment was lavished on the Huguenot chiefs: the widowed Queen of Navarre, with her son Henry, and her nephew, the young Prince of Condé, were invited to court; and thither with them, as sheep to the slaughter, went the austere Coligny. The heroic Queen of Navarre was the first victim. On the eve of the marriage between her son and Margaret of Valois, the beautiful sister of Charles IX., and the most brilliant ornament of that scandalous court, Jean died, poisoned, as was suspected, by the treacherous Catherine. Nevertheless, the bridal ceremony was performed with extraordinary magnificence at Nôtre Dame, and Coligny appeared as the most trusted adviser of the juvenile King of France.

And yet that diabolical day, never to be remembered without a shudder, was at hand. Catherine and the victor of Jarnac had resolved upon the most horrible violation of the laws of God and man ever perpetrated under color of religion—nothing less than the extermination of the Huguenots throughout France at a given signal. Charles, unprepared for such atrocity, exhibited irresolution; but at length, in gloomy anger, he consented that the Huguenots should perish, on condition that none of them were left alive to reproach him with the butchery of their brethren.

The blow once decided on, the great point was to render the massacre as general as possible; and with this design, the Huguenots were lured from all quarters to the capital. A suborned ruffian wounded Coligny in the street. The venerable Admiral was carried home covered with blood, and the preparations for slaughter were thus made without being subjected to his practiced eye.

The appointed hour arrived. At break of day on the 24th of August, 1572, being the feast of St. Bartholomew, at a dismal tolling from the belfry of the church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, which was answered from the Palace of Justice, and continued through all that terrible night, the Catholies, who recognized each other in the darkness by white crosses in their hats and searfs on the left arm, sallied forth and began the work of murder. Coligny was among the earliest victims. A band of ruffians, led by Henry, duke of Guise, surrounded the Admiral's house, and on the gates being opened in the King's name they rushed up stairs and found him at prayer. The brave old man was immediately pierced with several wounds. Not the slightest respect was paid to his gray hairs, and his lifeless body being tossed into the street was trampled under foot by Guise, who had remained out-The work thus begun was carried on with all the energy of fanaticism. The startled Huguenots, rushing from their dwellings half-dressed, were massacred by hundreds. Royal dukes and wealthy citizens were alike active in the work of extermination, which lasted for three long days; and his most Christian

Majesty was observed at a window of the Louvre enjoying the scene, and firing with zeal on the flying Huguenots. He summoned to his presence the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, telling them to choose between death and the mass. Surrounded by snares, the young King of Navarre had hitherto borne himself with more than the wariness of age. His equanimity did not, perhaps, desert him even in this moment of trial, though along with Condé he muttered an abjuration, which so calmed the cruel tyrant, that they were merely committed to prison. Charles, with a brilliant cortège, with the court ladies and the queen's maids of honor, rede to Montfaucon to survey the gibbets erected on the rising mound of masoury. On seeing the half-consumed remains of the Admiral he remarked, "that the body of a slain enemy has always a pleasant smell," and appeared to feel delight at the spectacle. In several of the provinces, seenes equally inhuman had been perpetrated; and it has been computed that on the occasion not fewer than sixty thousand Frenchmen met an untimely end.

The intelligence of the massacre of St. Bartholomew was received in Rome with enthusiastic rejoicings. The Pope ordered guns to be fired from the Castle of St. Angelo, a solemn mass to be chanted in the church of St. Mark, and a painting of the scene to be hung in the Vatican. But in countries where religious light had shed its civilizing influence, the atrocious bloodshed excited horror and indignation. In En-

gland, though the Great Queen was under the necessity of temporizing, there was on the part of her subjects a stern shout of execration and defiance; in the sister kingdom, the Scots blushed at the heinous excesses in which their ancient allies were indulging; and the Protestant princes of Germany took up arms to assist their imperiled brethren in France.

Charles IX. did not long survive that black and accursed day. While Rochelle, the stronghold of the Huguenots, was making a brave defense, the remorseful prince became a prey to violent deliriums. The ghosts of bleeding victims haunted his couch, and in 1574 a bloody flux consigned him to an early and unhonored grave.

His brother, the Duke of Anjou, who had previously been elected to the throne of Poland, was proclaimed King. Until his arrival Catherine resumed the regency, and exercised her brief authority to order the execution of the Count Montgomery, a cavalier of Scottish extraction, who having in other days slain the second Henry while tilting, had since given more mortal offense by taking part with the persecuted Huguenots.

Meantime, Henry III., on receiving intelligence of his brother's death, left Poland; but lingered so long at foreign courts that he wasted four months by the way, and on his arrival found eivil war on the point of breaking out. Henry, though an agent in the atrocity of 1572, purchased a peace with the Confederates by delivering into their hands six towns, and then gave up his time to folly and debauchery. He diverted himself with a number of pets, in the shape of parrots, donkeys, puppy dogs, and women of scandalous reputation, and soon rendered himself an object of seorn and aversion to his subjects. An association, known as the Holy League, was formed by the Catholies for deposing and cloistering the worthless and licentious monarch, and placing the crown on the brows of the Duke of Guise, as the heir of Charlemagne. The Duke's friends compared him to Pepin, and the fiery Duchess of Montpensier, his sister, carried in her girdle a pair of golden seissors, with which she vowed to shape the monkish crown of the modern Childeric.

Henry bethought him of taking the wind out of the aspirant's sails, and with that intent assembled the States-general at Blois. There, by the advice of his too subtle mother, the King of France proclaimed himself head of the Holy League, hoping thus to undermine his great subject's influence.

About this period a fresh element of discord was introduced into France. The King's brother, the Duke d'Alençon, who had been a suitor for the hand of the Queen of England, expired, a victim to intemperance, and Henry of Navarre became next heir to the crown, as lineal descendant of Robert de Clermont, a younger son of St. Louis. The Leaguers, furious as wounded bulls at the prospect of a Huguenot reigning, applied

to the Pope, who issued a bull excommunicating the King of Navarre, and declaring him incapable of occupying the throne. Thereupon the weak and irresolute sovereign of France prohibited the profession of any other than the Romish faith, and the Huguenots flew to arms. The King of Navarre, at their head, subdued several of the southern provinces, and at Coutras was encountered by Joyeuse, a royal favorite, in whose ranks were a multitude of light-hearted gallants, with gold and precious metals sparkling on their armor. Henry of Navarre could make no such glittering display; but he had the swords of the Bourbon princes, his cousins, and the counsels of the faithful Rosny, who had sold his timber and brought the money it realized, through a thousand perils, to the great hero whom it delighted his soul to serve. Henry, as was his custom, knelt down with his troops and besought the aid of Heaven. He then addressed them in his own high and inspiriting accents, and they rushed bravely forward, sweeping the whole of the royal army away. Joyeuse himself fell in the battle, and Henry proved not less humane in the moment of victory than he had been courageous in the hour of danger.

This triumph was barren of results, for a body of German auxiliaries were cut off by the Duke of Guise, and the King of Navarre's troops separated for want of pay. Guise, gradually increasing in power and audacity, entered Paris amidst the applause of thousands, proceeded to the Louvre, and demanded that the King should forthwith undertake a war of extermination against his Protestant subjects. Henry's assent did not satisfy the agitator; for, the populace rising, threw barricades across the streets, and the insclence of Guise rose to the utmost height. He demanded that the Bourbons should be disinherited, and that he should be nominated Lieutenant of the Kingdom; but he was, for the time, baffled. While making these demands of the Queen-mother, he received intelligence that the King had escaped, at full gallop, for Chartres. "I am a dead man," exclaimed the Duke, on hearing the tidings: "the King has departed for my destruction."

He was not far wrong in his idea; though the immediate consequence of Henry's flight was his refractory subject's aggrandizement. Guise assumed the regal functions, and even persuaded the fugitive King to accede to his impudent terms. By an edict Guise was appointed Generalissimo, with absolute powers, Henry of Navarre disinherited, and the heretics given over to vengeance.

But the king, Henry III., while professing to do all that his enemy asked, was playing a deep game. He summoned a parliament at Blois, and there all eyes were turned toward Guise, who on his part hardly condescended to conceal his intention of seizing the crown. Without thinking of the Italian subtlety with which he had to contend, he was assassinated

by the King's instructions at the door of the royal closet. Henry trampled on his bleeding body, as the Duke had formerly trampled on that of the brave Coligny; and soon after the Cardinal of Lorraine was put to death in prison.

Having been guilty of these murders, Henry had not the energy to avail himself of the advantage bought so dearly. A fierce storm was gathering at Paris; but, instead of marching upon the capital, he allowed the Dukes of Mayenne and Aumale to hasten thither and influence the passions of the excitable populace, who, rising in a mass, clamored savagely for the extinction of the accursed race of Valois. Nor had they long to wait for that event.

Mayenne was proclaimed Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom, and the Pope issued a bull against the wretched King. The latter was safe in the fair city of Tours, but in extreme perplexity; for Mayenne was almost at the gates, and as Catherine de Medici had gone to her long account, he knew not where to turn for counsel. In this emergency he allied himself with Henry of Navarre, and craved his advice. "There is but one remedy against the thunders of Rome," answered that great man, who in the midst of adversity never held counsel with despair—"that remedy is victory."

The honesty and frankness of his new ally was refreshing to Henry, after so much guile and deceit, and the consin-kings advanced on Paris. But while encamped on the heights of St. Cloud, a fanatic named Clément, incited by the Jesuits and influenced by the charms of the Duchess of Montpensier, gained admission to the royal pavilion, and stabbed the King with a knife. The assassin was instantly dispatched by the guard; but the wound proved mortal, and the murdered monarch expired in the arms of his kinsman of Navarre, whom he nominated as his successor.

The Pope, in the plenitude of his power, pronounced the corpse of the King unworthy of Christian burial, while a high place in the army of martyrs was awarded to his murderer. So unhappy and humiliating was the extinction of the royal line of Valois, after its representatives had swayed the sceptre of France for a period of two hundred and sixty-one years.

The condition of the country was not less miserable. France had fallen in the scale of nations; her finances were dilapidated; her commerce was destroyed; her fields lay uncultivated; and the great body of her people were ignorant, wretched, and oppressed with taxes which never reached the exhausted treasury.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY OF FRANCE.

Henry IV. was regarded as the bravest captain, the greatest prince, and the frankest gentleman of his age. But no qualities, however brilliant and undeniable, could set him on the throne of France, to which he was the rightful heir, so long as he professed a faith opposed to that of the people over whom he aspired to rule. The Catholics sternly denied him allegiance; and their refusal caused rival claimants to grow like hydra's heads. Of these the most formidable was Philip of Spain, who not only insisted, in defiance of the Salie law, on the right of his daughter to wear the crown, as niece to the three last monarchs of France, but by a systematic corruption created a strong party in her favor.

Mayenne, brother of the murdered Duke of Guise, took the field, boasting that he would bring Henry in chains to Paris; whither, even after being defeated at Arques, he sent three flags as proofs of victory. But while his misguided partisans in the capital were still intoxicated with the imaginary triumph, their formidable foe suddenly appeared at their gates.

At length, on the 14th of March, 1590, while Henry was besieging Dreux, Mayenne crossed the Seine, and the two armies met on the plain of Ivry for a decisive conflict. By daybreak on the following morning all was in readiness. The troops on both sides betook themselves to prayer, and then Henry, riding in front of his array, told his soldiers, in ease they lost sight of their standards, to follow the white plume on his crest, which they would always find on the road to honor. He then gave the signal for attack, and charged bravely upon the foe. The army of Mayenne and his Spanish auxiliaries went down, both horse and man. The sixteen thousand Leaguers were so utterly discomfited, that not a fourth of them left the ground. The Duke narrowly escaped. Flying from the lost field, and pretending that the King had fallen, he was admitted through the gate of Mante and allowed to cross the river.

The victor again marched on Paris; but the siege was long and arduous. The war, in which England and Spain had so much at stake, continued to rage with fury; and Henry at length comprehended that he must choose between his creed and the crown. The hero, whose eye had glanced with the triumph of genius at Coutras, and whose plume had waved in the thickest of the fray at Ivry, made a selection which is not capable of being successfully defended. At the foot of the altar at St. Denis he promised to live and die in the bosom of the Church of Rome, and, in spite

of the rancorous enmity of the League, Paris was delivered to his troops.

Henry's position was nevertheless the reverse of agreeable; for his abjuration of the Referried doctrines had partially offended the Huguenots, without wholly conciliating the Catholics. He therefore entered into a negotiation with the Pope, which resulted in his being acknowledged King of France; and he convoked an assembly of notables at Rouen, to receive their counsels in regard to the war with Spain. The notables, however, did nothing; and the King remained inactive, till the surprise of Amiens roused him to energy. With the aid of Rosny, now Duke of Sully, he collected an army, with which he speedily retook Amiens, and made Philip fain to sign a peace at Vervins, in 1598.

Freed from the anxieties of a foreign war, Henry, in 1598, promulgated the famous Edict of Nantes, which not only guaranteed the existing rights of the Huguenots, but insured them the free exercise of worship, and admission to all public employments.

With all his high qualities, this great monarch was, like all the Bourbons, the slave of degrading passions. His hereditary tendency to profligate amours was a source of perpetual annoyance to his favorite minister, Sully, and even the cause of dangerous conspiracies. However, his administration was, on the whole, conducted with so sincere a regard for the interests of his subjects, that a miraculous change was effected in the

condition of France. Henry declared, that if he lived, there should be no peasant in the kingdom who could not afford to cat meat every week-day, and to put a fowl into his pot every Sunday. By a wise course of policy, economy, and vigilance, he not only dragged back France from the brink of bankruptcy, but raised her to an unprecedented condition of material prosperity; and so apparent was the improvement, that foreigners, on visiting the capital, could hardly recognize the place where they had formerly seen much woe and wretchedness.

In the mean time, so far from being inattentive to European affairs, while clearly perceiving the station France should occupy, he meditated the project of a perpetual peace among the various states; but was suddenly assassinated, while revolving his mighty schemes.

He had at the time declared war against Spain and Austria, and was on the point of setting forth to take the command. Impatience to find himself at the head of the army had so agitated his spirits, that he was saddened by mournful presentiments; and on the 14th of May, 1610, the exempt of his guard, whose presence he had commanded, suggested that an airing might be beneficial. Henry agreed, and ordered his coach, that he might call on the Duke of Sully. The coach issued from the Louvre, attended by a few gentlemen and runners, and the weather being fine the equipage was open on all sides. On turning a corner,

the royal equipage was stopped by a wine-dray and a hay-cart. Then an enthusiast, named Ravaillae, availing himself of the momentary dispersion of the attendants, and climbing on the wheel, twice stabbed the King, who died instantly.

Henry had previously been separated from his first queen, Margaret of Valois, a woman of dissolute morals, and united to Mary de Medici, daughter of the Grand Duke of Tuscany. On his death, their son, Louis XIII., was proclaimed King, and his mother became Regent. Mary was of an imperious and restless temper, and she now offended the nobility by the exaltation of Concini—an Italian adventurer—to the highest honors.

Enraged at this foreign influence, the princes of the blood withdrew from court. Sully retired to his estates; all was confusion; and then was fulfilled the prophetic saying of Henry, "Men will know my value when I am gone."

In 1614, when Louis was in his fourteenth year, the Queen-regent convoked the States-general: but that body was so much divided, that they dissolved without doing any thing. Indeed, so humble was still the position of the Third Estate, that the Mayor of Paris, its president, was only permitted to address the King on his knees. He was rebuked for comparing the three orders to one family; but when the States next met, in 1789, the relative importance of their constituent parts was considerably altered.

At the age of sixteen, the youthful monarch was, in violent opposition to the wishes of Condé, who headed the malcontent nobles, united to the Infanta of Spain, celebrated as Anne of Austria; and he soon after freed himself from tutelage, by causing Coneini to be shot as he was entering the Louvre, and banishing the Queen-dowager to Blois. It was then that Richelieu appeared prominently on the stage where he was henceforth to play so mighty a part. Born about the time when Henry of Navarre became heir to the crown, of an old provincial family, and trained to the profession of arms, he had, nevertheless, been appointed Bishop of Lucon, and appeared in that capacity in the States-general. There he had been conspicuous among the clergy, and in his impressive address, had exhorted the boy-king to follow the counsels of his mother. Subsequently he had been a minister under Concini; and now, following Mary de Medici into exile, he distinguished himself by effecting a reconciliation between the mother and the son. Of that timely service, a cardinal's hat was the reward; and the skillful politician, admitted into the council-chamber, speedily acquired such a sway over the mind of Louis, that his services could not be dispensed with. Richelieu soon changed the face of affairs, repressed the power of the nobles, foiled the efforts of the Huguenots to form a republic with Rochelle for its capital, and contracted the King's eldest sister with Charles I. of England.

The ascendency of Richelieu created jealousy. The two queens, and Gaston of Orleans, the King's brother, formed a combination for his downfall; but the defeat of every attempt to that end only served to increase his power.

Rochelle, the stronghold of the Huguenots, was the scene of ever-recurring plots; but Richelieu, resolving that it should be so no longer, seized a favorable occasion, and marched against it in person. The inhabitants, enthusiastic for civil and religious freedom, made a stout resistance, but in vain. After holding out for a year they were compelled to surrender, and resign their municipal privileges, though retaining freedom of worship.

The genius of Richelieu was displayed as well in foreign as in domestic affairs. He assailed the power of Austria all over Europe, and Louis perceived the expediency of supporting so able, though unscrupulous a minister. Mary de Medici, however, now regarded him with a perfect hatred; and at one period, when her son was suffering from sickness, procured the Cardinal's dismissal. But Richelieu went to Versailles—then a simple hunting-seat—and vindicated his policy to the King with so much success, that he was retained at the helm of affairs, and again appeared as first minister, while his enemies were yet triumphing in his overthrow. The occasion is celebrated in history as "The Day of Dupes."

Richelieu signalized the renewal of his lease of

power by an act of daring intrepidity. He seized the Marshal Marillac, at the head of the army, and, by a lawless stretch of authority, had him put to death; and, besides, banished Mary of Medici from court. She died in poverty at Cologne, ten years later, having endured many mortifications. Her son Gaston still continued to conspire, but he had neither head nor heart to contend with such a statesman as Richelien.

At length there occurred an event replete with interest and importance. On the 5th of September, 1638, Anne of Austria became mother of a son, destined, as Louis XIV., to raise the French monarchy to its highest point of grandeur, to involve Europe in terrible wars, to bribe alike the kings and patriots of England to his purposes, to overrun the provinces of Holland, and to seize upon the crown of Spain.

War still raged fiercely; and on all sides the policy of Richelieu was triumphant. His declared enemies were in prison or in exile. A strong will, and immutable purpose, had placed king, clergy, nobility, and parliaments at his feet. Cinq Mars, Master of the Horse, in 1642 made an effort to restore the King's authority; but his plot was discovered; the young nobleman was executed, and the Cardinal undertook a triumphal progress through France, with a pride, pomp, and circumstance, far exceeding those of royalty.

There is one enemy, however, which neither kings

nor cardinals can evade; and, in the midst of his exultation, Death carried Richelieu to the tomb. Louis followed in 1643; and the crown was placed on the brow of his son, a boy of five years old.

Louis XIV. was, during a long minority, represented by his mother, Anne of Austria, who in her capacity as regent, selected for minister Cardinal Mazarin, an Italian of craft and courage, but distasteful to the nation as a foreigner. The nobles whom Richelieu had exiled, on their return complained that the Queen, who had formerly been a fellow-sufferer, failed to mark her appreciation of their claims, and leagued themselves against Mazarin; but their efforts were for the time unavailing.

Meanwhile, Louis of Bourbon, renowned as "the Great Condé," had won a brilliant victory over the Spaniards at Rocroy, utterly routing that cavalry which, since the days of Charles V., had been considered invincible. Condé, who was only twenty-two, along with Turenne followed up his triumph by other feats equally distinguished; till, in 1648, the Peace of Westphalia put an end to the Thirty Years' War.

At that period France was the scene of the internal commotions known as the Wars of the Fronde, which terminated in the triumph of Mazarin. Condé had, during their continuance, flung himself into the arms of the Spaniards; and, taking advantage of the civil dissensions, the latter advanced in hostile array under his guidance. But their march was arrested by

Threnne, who, in a series of military operations, memorable for the talents of the rival commanders, maintained the honor of France. Thus it happened that the first campaign in which Louis XIV. took part was against Condé in Picardy, under the auspices of Turenne. The Peace of the Pyrences ended the struggle; Condé was restored to favor, and Louis espoused the Infanta, who renounced in her name, and in that of her posterity, all claim to the Spanish succession. Soon after these transactions Mazarin died; and Louis, though he had been previously kept in ignorance of public affairs, speedily proved himself a consummate master of kingeraft. Inordinately ambitious, and fond to excess of adulation, he entered on his chequered career with vigor and energy. Acting on the advice of Mazarin, he resolved to govern without a prime minister; and the finances, which had been in great disorder since the death of Henry IV., were regulated by the celebrated Colbert, son of a merchant at Rheims; while the war department was presided over by Louvois.

Under pretext that Spain had failed to pay the dowry of his queen, Louis took several fortified towns in Flanders; but his expedition was checked by the Triple Alliance, and terminated by the Treaty of Aixla-Chapelle. Yet such was his passion for self-aggrandizement that, after having concluded a commercial treaty with Holland in 1667, the dispute between the Stadtholder and the De Wits tempted him to undertake

the conquest of that country. He overran the provinces to the very gates of Amsterdam; but, reduced to a state of desperation, the Dutch bored their dykes, let in the ocean, inundated the land, and compelled the French to retreat. De Ruyter maintained the honor of the Dutch flag at sea; and William of Orange successfully resisted the efforts of the great Condé. The other European powers became jealous of the French monarch's ambitious movements, and Louis saw reason to consent to an advantageous peace at Nimeguen, in 1678.

Europe, nevertheless, quailed before the power of Louis; and in France his word was above all law. The monarchy of the houses of Valois and Bourbon was at the height of its splendor; and yet there were men who, in religious belief, dared to differ from its most magnificent representative. Louis, who had always regarded the Huguenots with dislike, indignant at their contumacy, and urged by his spouse, Madame Maintenon, and his confessor, Père la Chaise, issued in 1685 an ordinance, which repealed the Edict of Nantes. By that impolitic measure France lost five hundred thousand of her most industrious subjects, who were received with open arms in other states.

At this period, William of Orange, who entertained toward Louis a mortal antipathy, projected a formidable league to curb his power. Nevertheless, the French arms were still victorious. Noailles triumph-

ed in Spain; a French army ravaged the Palatinate; and William, though by this time King of England, was defeated by the great Luxembourg in the battle of Steenkirk. But Louis was no longer the man pronounced by Mazarin as having stuff enough in him for four kings. His health had broken down; Colbert was no more; and the finances were in disorder. Peace was, therefore, necessary; and, in 1697, it was concluded at Ryswick. Restitution of various conquests was made to Spain, Lorraine was restored to its duke, and William of Orange was acknowledged as King of England.

Tranquillity now prevailed for two years, but the death of Charles II. of Spain was the signal for new wars. That feeble sovereign had left no issue, but named as his heir the Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis. The Grand Monarch could not resist the temptation of placing so brilliant a crown on the head of his descendant, and not only accepted it in violation of the treaty of the Pyrenees, but, on the decease of the banished King of England, proclaimed the Chevalier as James III., in violation of the treaty of Ryswick.

England, unable to forgive two such breaches of faith in one man, combined with the house of Austria, and prepared for hostilities. On the eve of war William died; but France found a foe far mightier in John Churchill, the illustrious Marlborough. The struggle was fierce In Spain, the country whose

crown had occasioned the war, the French, led by Vendôme, were finally victorious; but in all other quarters the armies of Louis had been worsted. The old King was compelled to humble himself before such disasters, and in 1713 was signed the Treaty of Utrecht, which stipulated that the Bourbon king of Spain should renounce all eventual claim to the throne of France, and that his brother should formally exclude himself and his heirs from the Spanish succession. Two years later, at Versailles, which he had converted into a magnificent palace, Louis expired, on the 1st of September, 1715, after the unprecedentedly long reign of seventy-two years.

Louis XV. was a child when proclaimed king of a wretched and starving people, and Philip of Orleans, a man of scandalous repute, became regent of the kingdom. Philip's aspirations were, in spite of nocturnal orgies, somewhat ambitious, and he fell upon impolitic means for raising a revenue. Thus he patronized Law, a Scotchman, who projected the Mississippi Scheme, and who, after receiving the homage of all Europe—after being almost worshiped—stole out of France when the bubble burst, and closed his career in indigence among the gaming-tables of Venice.

In 1723 Louis was declared of age by the Parliament, and affianced to the Infanta of Spain, who arrived at the court of Versailles. But Orleans dying soon after, and the Duke of Bourbon succeeding as prime minister, the match was broken off, the Infanta

unceremoniously sent back to her father, and replaced by a daughter of Stanislaus, the uncrowned King of Poland.

The affront was so acutely felt in Spain, that Philip entered into a close alliance with Austria; and England, alarmed at such a conjunction, sided with France, and the Treaty of Hanover was signed in 1725. In 1726 Louis dismissed Bourbon, and resolved to rule alone; but he admitted to his council Cardinal Fleury, his old preceptor, who directed his efforts to the maintenance of peace, and effected a reconciliation with Spain.

The death of the Elector of Saxony, in 1732, threw Europe into a war, which was continued on the demise of the Emperor Charles, though Louis seems to have been too deeply engrossed by his sinful pleasures to care much for such matters. At the beginning of his reign he had been particularly popular, but the favor he had enjoyed rested on no sure foundation, and he dissipated it by a profligate career. When Voltaire was scoffing at all divine institutions, and when Rousseau was protesting against the fundamental principles of society, Louis, sunk in luxury and licentiousness, was indulging in the ignoble convolation that the throne would last his time.

In 1757, a war, which had been long threatening, broke out between France and England respecting territorial possessions in America. Peace was not restored till after the accession of George III., whose

affairs were then administered by John Stuart, earl of Bute.

Madame Pompadour, the King's female favorite, died in 1765, and was succeeded in his affections by another disreputable woman, who, receiving from her royal lover the title of Countess of Barri, hencefortl exercised sovereign sway. Louis shamelessly pursued his debaucheries till 1774, when he was carried off by small-pox, hurriedly interred at St. Denis, and succeeded on the throne by his young, awkward, and inexperienced grandson.

Louis XVI., doomed to atone for the offenses of several generations, began to reign at the age of twenty. His father, the Dauphin, a prince whose morality and rectitude estranged him from the dissolute court, had died in 1765, leaving three sons, successively sovereigns of France; and the eldest thus becoming heir-apparent to his grandfather's throne, was united, in 1770, to Marie Antoinette, the ill-fated daughter of the German Emperor and his distinguished spouse, Maria Theresa. The Austrian princess was received by the French people with great joy, and in personal appearance was confessed to be singularly captivating. "How beautiful is our Dauphiness!" was the general exclamation; and, "Surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision," wrote Burke, sixteen years after he had seen her at Versailles, "just above the horizon, decorating and cheering the elevated sphere she had just begun to move in; glittering like the morning star, full of life, and splendor, and joy."

With all her personal influence and energy, the young Queen was not gifted with any excess of prudence; and her husband, besides being utterly inexperienced in affairs of state, was deficient in decision of character and knowledge of mankind. He commenced his errors by selecting as minister the aged Maurepas, who had been driven from office in the previous reign for satirizing Madame Pompadour, and who was fully fifty years behind the age. Maurepas soon acquired a complete sway over the King's mind, and persuaded him to recall the old Parliaments, which had been suppressed by Louis XV. This concession was the earliest victory gained by the democratic party against the court influence.

Meantime, the finances had been intrusted to Turgot, who, as a philosopher and economist, meditated such a removal of abuses as would have given strength to the throne and liberty to the subject; but Maurepas, envious of his colleague's popularity, and alarmed at the opposition to his Six Edicts, procured his dismissal. The department over which Turgot had presided, came, after a brief interval, into the hands of Necker, who regulated the finances with much ability and success during the difficult period when France aided the American insurgents to shake off the English yoke. Necker's celebrated budget of 1781 exhibited a surplus of ten millions in the revenue,

but, though hailed with general approbation, this financial triumph wounded the vanity of Maurepas; and Necker, finding that he was no longer treated with confidence, tendered his resignation.

His successor, Calonne, pursuing a course of policy precisely opposite, was soon in such perplexity, that in 1787 an assembly of the notables was convened; but the Parliament, after refusing to register the royal edicts, declared that the States-general had the sole power in matters of taxation. The King thereupon consented to the convocation of the States-general within five years, and, in the mean time, recalled Necker, whose restoration to power was celebrated with tumultuous rejoicing. On his resuming the functions of finance minister matters went somewhat smoothly, and in 1788 an edict was issued for convening the Estates.

The Queen with a higher spirit and a more capacious mind than her husband, had insisted on the expediency of the States-general meeting at least forty leagues from the capital; but she was overruled, and on the 5th of May, 1789, they assembled at Versailles, after an interval of seventy-five years. This body, in which the influence of the Third Estate soon became predominant, assumed the authority which had previously belonged to the crown, formed itself into a national assembly, and armed the democracy of Paris. Then began in earnest that Revolution which, whatever its ultimate influence on the destinies of the

human race, proved so prolific of crime, bloodshed, and wretchedness, as to mortify the most enthusiastic and disappoint the least hopeful. The Bastille was taken by an infuriated mob; the chief nobles and princes of the blood were driven into exile; the King, being brought to Paris, was compelled to accept the declaration of the Rights of Man; and titles of nobility were abolished throughout France. Then a general confederation took place in the Champ de Mars on the anniversary of the taking of the Bastille—the last day of hope enjoyed by the royal family.

Clubs were now constituted to carry on the work of agitation. The earliest of these had its meetings at the ancient convent of the Jacobins, from which a body of the most violent revolutionists afterward derived their name. At this time, Mirabeau, a man of noble birth, irregular habits, and stormy passions, who had exercised unrivaled influence over the Assembly, died a victim to his excesses.

Meanwhile the Emigrants were demanding aid from every court in Christendom, and Louis, alarmed for his personal safety, escaped with his family from the palace of the Tuileries, and eluding the vigilance of guards passed the barrier without hindrance; but being intercepted at Varennes, he was conveyed back to Paris, where, in spite of a protest on the part of his exiled brothers, the hapless King accepted the new Constitution.

The year 1792 was still more disastrous to the un-

fortunate monarch. "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," became the cry; and while the Duke of Brunswick, at the head of the armies of Austria and Prussia, was advancing to repress the revolution, an armed mob forced the Tuileries, insulted the heir of Henry of Navarre with impunity, and forced him to place on his head the bonnet rouge, recognized as the emblem of liberty. Soon after this occurrence the National Assembly decreed the country in danger, and Pétion demanded the King's deposition. Another and fiercer assault was made on the Tuileries, and Louis, with that majestic Queen who had first entered the capital through triumphal arches and streets strewn with nosegays, fled for refuge in the National Assembly, while the Swiss Guards were pitilessly butchered by a people rendered cruel by centuries of oppression.

On the same day the royal authority was suspended, and the work of revolution went rapidly onward. The members of the royal family were imprisoned in the Temple; the statues of the kings were thrown down; the state-prisoners were ferociously massacred; anarchy reigned; the National Convention was constituted; the King was deposed; France was declared a Republic; and fraternity was decreed to all nations struggling for liberty.

On the 2d of November the Convention, in the plenitude of its lawless power, decided that Louis should be brought to trial. On the 17th of January, 1793, he was condemned, and on the 21st he was led

forth to execution. On the 15th of October his Queen was likewise beheaded, and two years later their son, Louis XVII., died in prison.

The French armies, under Dumouriez and Kellermann, had hitherto been successful against the allies of the Emigrants; but after the judicial murders of Louis and his queen the nations of Europe took up arms. All freedom and order were indeed at an end. Robespierre, if records do not belie his words and actions, was one of the most extraordinary of those specimens of humanity who luxuriate in the flow of blood. To gratify this thirst, neither age nor sex was spared, and ere long Robespierre fell before the spirit he had invoked. In July, 1794, he was guillotined, along with his principal partisans; the Jacobin club was suppressed; the reign of terror was over; and the world breathed somewhat more freely.

A new scene was speedily opened up. Napoleon Bonaparte—a native of Corsica—one of the greatest actors who ever appeared on the theatre of the world, having previously distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon, displayed extraordinary capacity in the suppression of a Parisian insurrection in 1795. He was intrusted with the command of the army destined for Italy, and at the age of twenty-six achieved such prodigies of generalship that his troops were considered invincible, and Bonaparte, who had indulged from infancy in ambitious dreams, determined on emulating the actions and acquiring the crown of Charlemagne.

He carried all before him, and the combined powers of Europe, with the exception of England, laid down their arms; and finding on his return from Egypt in 1799 a revolution in Paris, he skillfully turned the circumstance to his own advantage, and was declared First Consul.

Next year Bonaparte crossed the Great St. Bernard, at the head of forty thousand soldiers; and in June, 1800, gained the battle of Marengo, which placed all Italy at his feet. The victory of Moreau at Hohenlinden accelerated a peace with Austria, which was signed in 1801, and followed in 1802 by the Treaty of Amiens, productive of a temporary cessation of hostilities between England and France.

Bonaparte seized the opportunity to apply his genius to the improvement of the general condition of the country, and occupied his attention with operations which entitle him to gratitude. At the same time he altogether departed from the spirit of the Revolution, and stripped the people of every vestige of power. But Frenchmen were so weary of change and tumult, that they preferred crouching at the feet of a victorious despot, to being mercilessly butchered at the bidding of sanguinary demagogues. Accordingly, in 1804, Bonaparte was proclaimed Emperor.

The peace with England was of brief duration. The Emperor, repairing to Boulogne, prepared a formidable armament for the invasion of the British isles, and Pitt sent forth the Hero of the Nile, who gained so complete a victory over the French fleet at Trafalgar, that Bonaparte no longer ventured to dispute the sovereignty of the seas. But though unsuccessful on that element, the great Emperor was not without his brilliant triumphs. Learning, while at Boulogne, that the Austrians and Russians were advancing, he suddenly departed thence and crossed the Rhine. After several successes on the part of his generals, Bonaparte compelled the capitulation at Ulm, and entered Vienna as a conqueror. From that city he marched into Moravia; and on the 2d of December, 1805, the anniversary of his coronation, totally defeated the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz.

Napoleon retraced his steps to Paris, where he was welcomed with intoxicating applause. Ambitious to clevate his family, he bestowed the Neapolitan crown on his brother Joseph; erected the United Provinces into a kingdom for Louis; and nominated Murat, his brother-in-law, Grand Duke of Cleves. Untaught by the example of Cromwell, he even attempted to ereate a hereditary order of nobility; but the effort was, of course, futile.

About this date the King of Prussia, resolving on war, insulted the French embassador, and invaded Saxony. Bonaparte undertook a campaign, and annihilated the Prussian power at the great battle of Jena, in 1806. He then visited the tomb of Frederick the Great, and possessed himself of that royal



NAPOLEON AT AUSTERLITZ.



warrior's sword; after which he marched into Poland, and crushed the Russian army at Friedland. A conference which took place between the two Emperors and the King of Prussia resulted in the Treaty of Tilsit.

Portugal was the next victim. A proclamation for her dismemberment being issued, the Prince Regent and royal family embarked, in trepidation, for Brazil. Soon after, the royal family of Spain, who had been singularly servile, were sacrificed to Napoleon's ambition; and Joseph Bonaparte, resigning the crown of Naples, became King of Spain.

But the Spaniards would not submit to be thus appropriated. They rose with all their ancient spirit, declared war to the death, and so effectually checked the French progress in the Peninsula, that Joseph was obliged to abandon Madrid a week after he had entered it. Events hurried onward. Portugal revolted: Wellington landed there with an English army, and turned back the tide of conquest that had overwhelmed the whole Continent. In Spain the English were received by their old enemies with open arms, and the star of Napoleon began to pale in its lustre. In his efforts to subjugate Spain, the Emperor lost the flower of his armies; and his former allies, emboldened by the success of the English, threw off his yoke, and became so many foes. On the verge of his fate, he divorced, in 1810, the Empress Josephine, and within three months married Maria

Louisa of Austria. Their son was styled the King of Rome.

In 1812 the Emperor put his fortune to the test. He declared war against Russia, and undertook a campaign at the head of four hundred thousand men. Having captured and burned Smolensko, he fought a battle before Moscow, and took possession of that city. But the inhabitants, believing their country to be lost if the French found rest and shelter in Moscow, set fire to it in a thousand places during the night; and in a few hours the buildings were in ruins and ashes. After fruitless negotiations Bonaparte withdrew from Moscow, as the winter was setting in with unusual severity; but in crossing the Berezina twenty thousand Frenchmen perished, and the retreat became a fearful rout. On the 5th of December Bonaparte deserted his shattered army, and on the 18th arrived, at midnight, in Paris.

New forces being raised, the Emperor again took the field, and gained the battle of Lützen in 1813; but Wellington, having defeated the French generals in Spain, Paris capitulated in March, 1814, and was occupied by the Allied armies. Napoleon, while hurrying thither, received the fatal news, and falling back on Fontainebleau, he there learned that he had been proclaimed a tyrant by the senate. Betrayed and abandoned by his old companions in arms, Napoleon signed the Treaty of Fontainebleau, which declared himself and his descendants to have forfeited

the crown. On the 20th of April he prepared to depart for Elba, addressed his sobbing soldiers in accents tremulous with agitation, and after pressing their standard to his lips, threw himself into his traveling carriage.

On the same day, the heir of the Bourbon monarchs, escorted by the Prince of Wales, emerged from his seclusion at Hartwell, entered London amidst the applause of a multitude, and four days later was conducted to Dover. On the 3d of May he made a solemn entry into Paris, accompanied by the Duchess of Angoulême, daughter of Louis XVI., and attended by the Old Guard, whose gloom contrasted with the joy exhibited by the long-depressed partisans of the House of Bourbon. But a royal family restored by foreign arms can hardly continue popular, and the brilliant achievements of Napoleon had rendered the French people ardent lovers of novelty and excitement.

The deposed Emperor perfectly comprehended their character, and next year, with the utmost confidence in the enthusiasm of the army for his person, he landed at Cannes with a thousand men. Every where the soldiers responded to his eloquent appeal. Ney, after taking the oath of fidelity to the King, unable to resist the fascination, flung himself in the arms of his former general. The King, in despair, fled to Ghent, and Napoleon took possession of Paris without firing a shot.

He had soon three hundred thousand men under his command, and yet his position was perilous, for all Europe was in commotion to repress his ambition; and at Brussels were stationed about thirty thousand British troops, taught from infaney never to turn their back upon a foe, and headed by the most successful captain of the age. Napoleon had now to learn from experience what manner of men these free and famous islanders were, when brought face to face and hand to hand with an enemy, however brave and powerful.

On the 1st of June he animated the spirits of his followers by an impressive military pageant, in which fifty thousand soldiers were reviewed, and then took the field to achieve, as he anticipated, a crowning victory.

On the cloudy morning of the 18th of June, 1815, after a night of wind, rain, and thunder, during which their forces had bivouacked within a mile of each other, Wellington and Napoleon met on the plains of Waterloo—the fate of Europe trembling in the balance. Delighted to find that his antagonist, instead of retreating, as he had expected, was setting the Allied army in battle order, Napoleon praised the manner in which the enemy took the ground, but added, "They must run." Soult, who better understood the character of the English, replied, "They will be cut to pieces first." At half-past ten, a gun fired at an advancing column of French was the sig-

nal for action, and a general and tremendous cannonade followed.

Wellington had calculated on the arrival of Blücher, with his Prussians, at three o'clock; but the state of the roads delayed them long beyond that hour, and the Allied troops had thus to stand or fall, mostly in squares, before the murderous play of Napoleon's artillery, and the terrible charges of his cavalry. Wellington, while riding in the thickest of the fire, though his aspect remained composed, was frequently observed to look at his watch, and once exclaim, "Would to God that night or Blücher would come!"

Napoleon, on the contrary, was confident of victory; and about six in the evening, having ordered his whole front line to advance, and led forward his Imperial Guards, handed over the lead to Ney, pointing to the English ranks, and saying, "There, gentlemen, is the way to Brussels." "Vive l'Empereur!" was the response, and the French dashed onward: but on cresting a hill, behind which the English Foot Guards were sheltered from the fire, a few mounted officers were visible through the smoke; and one of these was Wellington, who shouted, "Up, Guards, and at them!" Instantly they sprang to their feet, and after pouring forth a shattering volley, rushed upon the foe with resistless effect. Wellington now perceiving that the Prussians were at hand, said, "The hour is come!" and ordered the whole line to charge.

The command was received with a deafening cheer: the sun, which had been obscured all day, burst forth, and the English troops, whose valor had been so long restrained, pressed onward to glowing victory.

Napoleon was livid with rage and despair. Bewildered and desperate, he rode off the field, abandoned the wreek of his army, and carried to Paris the intelligence that all was lost. There, having hastily signed, in favor of his infant son, Napoleon II., an abdication, which the Chambers with due caution accepted, he determined to leave France; and betaking himself with his suite on board the Bellerophon, he wrote to the Prince Regent, demanding permission to take shelter in England. The reply was an order to convey the ex-Emperor to St. Helena, where the great Corsican died in 1821.

Meantime the conquering army marched to Paris, and Louis XVIII. took possession of his hereditary throne. But it soon appeared that exile had taught him little: he manifested a decided predilection for the order of things under which he had been born, altogether out of place in the sovereign of a people whose history had not been such as to inspire them with any ardent sympathy with the past. There was all the pomp of an ancient monarchy, without that foundation in the hearts of the people, without which even historic dynastics can not endure. In giving toleration to the Jesuits, he raised suspicions, and committed a blunder which had proved fatal to

other restored kings. Yet he contrived to steer between contending parties till his death, which occurred on the 16th September, 1824, and left the country in a state of increasing prosperity.

Charles X., brother of the deceased monarch, was next heir; and his accession was hailed with enthusiasm by the Parisians, who regarded his abolition of the censorship of the press, along with his gracious speech and affable manners, as pledges of his affection for a liberal system of government. In 1825 he was ceremoniously crowned at Rheims by the Archbishop, and solemnly swore to the Charter; but fortune was decidedly against him. The erection of Jesuit colleges, the grant of forty millions to the emigrants, and the attempted restoration of the law of primogeniture, aroused Republican jealousy; and the defeat of the latter measure, in 1826, was followed by signal rejoicings. Next year the Church in France, finding how formidable was the power of the press, prevailed on the cabinet to introduce a measure for curtailing its freedom; and the attempt, though futile, was productive of much disturbance.

Charles, who was by no means indifferent to the possession of popularity, resolved to delight the eyes of the Parisians with a review of the National Guard; and on the last Sunday in April, 1827, nearly the whole population of Paris poured into the Champ de Mars, where sixty thousand men were under arms. The reception of the King was all that could have

been wished; and as he rode along the ranks he was greeted with cries of "Vive le Roi!" But mingled with these were expressions condemnatory of his ministers, and a few voices even insulted the members of the royal family who happened to be present. Charles, unfortunately, lost his temper. "I come here," he said, angrily, "to receive homage, not lessons." The demonstration thus proved a failure; the royal party returned home depressed and dejected; a cabinet council was forthwith summoned; and next morning an ordinance was vindictively issued for disbanding the National Guard.

There was courage, if not prudence, in such a course, and resistance was not attempted. But the press threatened ministers with vengeance; and the censorship was despotically re-established. There were other signs of a coming struggle between revolutionized France and the House of Bourbon; and with every national sentiment wounded, with the army disaffected, and the revolutionary chiefs at liberty, the issue was not doubtful when the inevitable hour at length arrived.

In 1830, a period pregnant with great events, came into existence the unhappy ministry of Prince Polignac, which was, rightly or wrongly, considered dangerous to the public liberty so dearly bought. Three parties in Paris, were, with different views, eager for the overthrow of the obnoxious government: the Republicans; the constitutional Conservatives; and the Orleanists,

who had the benefit of the potent pen of Thiers and the convenient coffers of Lafitte. The motley Opposition, supported by a most powerful and eloquent press, had a decided majority in the legislature; but Polignac, however inadequate to the crisis, still persevered. The Algerine war created a slight reaction in the public mind, and a dissolution of the Chambers was thought advisable. Matters, however, only became worse; and the King and his ministers determined to divest themselves of fears and scruples, to violate the constitution, and to take the law into their own hands.

Accordingly on the 26th of July, appeared the memorable and fatal ordinances, by which the new Chamber was dissolved before its meeting, the electoral system changed, and the freedom of the press abolished. Murmurs, not loud but deep, were the first replies; but next day Paris was in rebellion. Barricades were thrown up, the tri-colored standard was displayed, every street became a scene of carnage and confusion, and the army, in whose ranks had previously been signs of wavering, proved faithless in the hour of need.

On the night of the 29th the royal family departed from Versailles, and sought refuge at Rambouillet. It was quite evident, however, that they must begone from among a people with whom they had no sentiments in common. Before leaving France the aged monarch transmitted to the Chambers an abdication in favor of the Duke of Bordeaux; but it was too

late. The sentence against the Bourbons had gone forth; the Deputies had already, in their wisdom, decided, amid salvos of artillery, that the crown should be transferred to the Duke of Orleans, who during the revolution is said to have been hidden in a summer-house of his park; and accordingly, on the 9th of August, that eminent personage having, with head uncovered and outstretched hand, sworn to observe the Constitutional Charter, and henceforth act solely with a view to the interests of the people of France, began to reign with the title of Louis Philippe I.

On the 16th of that month, the dethroned king and his family, after being menaced in their asylum by twenty thousand Parisians, embarked at Cherbourg to seek refuge on the shores of England.

All was delusion, however; naught was truth. A quarter of a century has well-nigh passed; but the throne then enthusiastically erected on barricades no longer exists as an eye-sore to Legitimists. Ere eighteen years had run their course, a scene somewhat similar to the three days of July was being recklessly enacted. The Orleans dynasty had fallen; and the prince whom the French citizens had, on that momentous occasion, elevated to sovereignty, was flying, in terror and dismay, with those descendants in the male line to whom the crown had been granted forever, to seek and find safety on the same free and sacred soil.

CHAPTER IV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

About the year 451, when the Ancient Britons were enervated by four centuries of servitude under the Romans-when they were left by their Imperial masters at the mercy of the first invader-and when, unable to repress the inroads of the Scots, they complained that the barbarians drove them to the sea, that the sea drove them back on the barbarians, and that they had only the choice of two deaths, either to be swallowed by the waves or slain by the sword there anchored off the coast of Kent three bulky ships, commanded by Hengist, a martial Saxon, who boasted of a descent from Woden, the god of war, and who had been trained to arms in the ranks of Rome. From this chief and his brother, Horsa, the querulous Britous craved assistance against their Northen foes; and these dauntless strangers, calling over an army of their countrymen, speedily drove the Picts and Scots to their fastnesses. So far, however, from manifesting any haste to depart from the fertile and beautiful land which he had delivered, Hengist settled in Lincolnshire; and there he gave a feast, to which

went Vortigern, a king among the Britons. 'The eyes of the royal guest, unused to damsels so fair and fascinating, were arrested by Rowena, the youthful daughter of Hengist; and when that alluring nymph, on bended knee, presented to him the wassail cup, her soft accents and graceful movements so charmed Vortigern's heart, that he never rested till she became his bride. Her kinsmen thereupon gave indications, not to be mistaken, of aspiring to supremacy in the country. The sword was drawn, and the two races commenced that struggle which lasted for a hundred and fifty years, which the Britons maintained with the energy of despair, and which gave occasion to the exploits of their king Arthur and those Knights of the Round Table who figure as heroes in chivalrous romances. Their courage and patriotism were vain; for beneath the white-horse banner of Hengist his strong followers plied their battle-axes so effectually that their leader became King of Kent, and founded the Saxon rule in Britain

During the existence of the Saxon Heptarchy, which included the whole country, subject to seven princes, the Anglo-Saxon chiefs, being converted to Christianity, became members of the Catholic Church, discontinued the worship of Thor and Woden, and erected monasteries; and in 827 Egbert, king of Wessex, formed the separate provinces into one state, and reigned over all England.

The Saxons were waging a fieree eivil war, when,

one morning, a band of adventurers, with shaved beards, and short, well-combed yellow hair, entered a port on the southern coast. A local magistrate going to the harbor demanded their business. The Northern pirates, with a howl of defiance, slew the official and his attendants, plundered the town, placed the booty in their vessels, gave their sails to the wind, tugged at their oars, and were soon out of sight. Such was the ominous commencement of the hostilities which the Danes henceforth carried on against the shores of England.

At length, in 871, King Ethelred was mortally wounded in a battle with the fierce invaders, and his hopeful son, Alfred the Great, was chosen as successor to the crown. But the young king, proving less popular than was anticipated, received so little support against the sea-kings, that he was under the necessity of relinquishing his throne, and seeking refuge in the hut of a swine-herd on the verge of Cornwall. One day, while in this obscure retreat, the swine-herd's wife, unconscious of her guest's quality, ordered him to watch some cakes which were baking at the fire; but Alfred was so deeply interested in some bows and arrows that he neglected her instructions. "You stupid man!" exclaimed the enraged woman; "you will not take the trouble to prevent my bread from burning, though you're always very glad to eat it!"

Alfred, too great a hero to despair of his fortunes,

ere long ventured forth, and, disguised as a minstrel, took his way to the Danish eamp. While diverting the rude warriors with songs and music, he became conversant with their affairs, and then summoning his subjects to repair to his standard, he defeated the Danes in eight battles, and reduced them to submission by his genius and valor.

The invasion of Swen, king of Denmark, in 1002, once more changed the position of the antagonistic races; and his son, Canute the Great, during eighteen years, reigned with distinction in England. However, in 1041, Edward the Confessor, heir of the Saxon line, was restored to his ancestral throne by the arms of Earl Godwin, whom some chroniclers describe as son of a cowherd, while others assert that he was grand-nephew of Edric, the potent Earl of Mercia. In either case, the restored king married Godwin's daughter, the learned and beautiful Edith; and when Edward died without heirs, the English, as previously related, elected in his stead Godwin's son, the rich and popular Harold.

The throne which Harold occupied for nine months was utterly unstable. The empire of the Saxons in England was in the last stages of decay. A corrupt church, a lazy, luxurious aristocraey, and a populace oppressed and unscrupulously decimated to supply the Irish slave-market, formed a nation, which, however capable of being resuscitated by an infusion of fresh blood, was deficient in the elements of defense; when

a ship, with the Pope's banner flying at its mast-head and three lions painted on its sails, landed William of Normandy at Pevensey, in Sussex.

The conquest, which his numerous army commenced on the 14th of October, 1066, with the victory of Hastings, where King Harold fell fighting, facilitated by the helplessness of the Saxon prince, Edgar Atheling, and the temporizing of the great Northern earls, Edwin and Morkar, was gradually extended from the coast of Sussex and the downs of Kent to the mountains of Northumberland; and then no hope remained for the vanquished race but in the Isle of Ely, a marshy district, where, in 1069, among rushes and willows, a band of resolute patriots formed a Camp of Refuge.

At that date there came from Flanders an Englishman named Hereward, whose patrimony had, in his absence, been seized by a Norman; but Hereward, assembling his friends, speedily expelled the intruder, and afterward carried on a partisan warfare with so much success, that he became the hero of street ballads, and Captain of the camp at Ely. In that capacity he exhibited singular skill, and the place being taken after a struggle, Hereward made a hairbreadth escape, and still kept about him a hundred Englishmen, several of whom made a rule of never shrinking from a combat with seven foreigners. The exploits of Hereward so endeared him to an English lady of large property, that she proposed to unite

her fate with his; and, after their marriage, she prevailed on him to make his peace with the Conqueror.

Hereward, who had now the prospect of living in safety, was one afternoon lazily reposing in his shady orehard, without his coat of mail, but with a sword and pike by his side, when his slumber was broken by the entrance of a troop of Normans. The destined victim, arousing himself, grasped his pike and pierced their leader to the heart; and then, drawing his sword, he fought desperately, till the blade was shivered on the helmets of his foes. Even then he laid about him with the pommel, and fifteen Normans had fallen, ere, wounded and bleeding, he was beaten to his knee. While the life-blood was flowing, Hereward, seizing a buckler, struck a Breton knight so fiercely in the face, that they expired at the same moment; and from that time it became a popular saying, that if four such men had existed in England, the conquest could never have been accomplished. As it was, Saxons, Danes, and Britons groaned under a foreign yoke; William metamorphosed each of his mercenary comrades into a knight or noble; and England became, for the time, an appanage of the Norman duchy.

The English people, however, though vanquished and plundered, retained sufficient influence to make their alliance worth striving for, and it was exerted on several memorable occasions in favor of Norman princes, who proved most ungrateful. William Rufus, after being crowned in 1087, appealed to the natives in his hour of need, and promised them, in exchange for aid against the Norman adherents of his elder brother, Robert, whatever laws they should desire. At the siege of Rochester they rendered him triumphant; but when securely seated on the throne, William laughed at his promises, and proved so tyrannical in regard to the Forest Laws, that he was styled, in derision, "the Wild-beast Herd." The English experienced a feeling of relief when, on an August morning in 1100, Rufus fell in a glade of the New Forest, mortally wounded by an arrow, which his cherished friend, Walter Tirel, had shot at a stag.

Henry I., surnamed Beauclerc, the Conqueror's youngest son, then seized upon the throne. He instantly paid court to the Anglo-Saxons, talked of being a native of their country, promised a charter to secure their ancient liberties, and espoused the Princess Maude, niece of Edgar Atheling. The hopes thus excited were cruelly disappointed; the good queen went to her last account with the melancholy reflection that she had sacrificed herself for her race in vain, and her son inherited so little of the maternal spirit, that he vowed to make the English draw plows like oxen when he came to the throne. But in the midst of such threats the youth was drowned, in his passage from Normandy, in the winter of 1120; and King Henry, having with difficulty persuaded the barons to recognize as heir to the crown his daughter, Maude,

married first to the Emperor of Germany, and, on his decease, to the Count of Anjou, died in 1135, while on a hunting expedition in Normandy.

Stephen, count of Boulogne, now seized upon the throne, and the Anglo-Saxons held aloof from the civil strife which ensued between that martial prince and the Empress Maude. Believing that they had no interest in the dispute, they continued to plow and toil, without taking part in public affairs, except, perhaps, in crecting those castles, with turrets and pinnacles, which Stephen allowed the barons to raise on every eminence, and which contrasted strangely with the two-storied dwellings, embosomed among oaks, where resided such of the Saxon thanes as had escaped the Norman sword.

Henry II., son of Maude, and founder of the Plantagenet dynasty, succeeded Stephen in 1154; and when he arrived in England the people could not refrain from applauding so young, brave, and handsome a prince, as he looked when crowned with his spouse, Eleanor of Aquitaine. During the same year, Nicholas Breakspear, an Englishman, was elevated to the papal throne; and ere long, gayest and most distinguished among Henry's courtiers, appeared a man, sprung from the vanquished race, cradled in romance, destined to an extraordinary career, and doomed to a tragical end.

In Palestine—during one of the earlier crusades, to which he had gone with a warlike baron—Gilbert

Becket, an Anglo-Saxon, was taken prisoner and thrown into a dungeon by the Saracens. An emir's daughter, seeing and loving the captive Englishman, contrived his escape; and Becket, reaching his native land in safety, became a London trader; marched, no doubt, with the fighting men of the city; and enjoyed himself at times, like his neighbors, by hunting wild boars in the primeval forest beyond Islington. Meantime absence made the Eastern lady's heart grow fonder, and she formed the romantic resolution of following the object of her affections, though without any other knowledge respecting him than his city and his name. Nevertheless, by repairing to a seaport and repeating the word London, she was taken on board a vessel bound for the Thames, and on arrival went about the streets asking for Gilbert. At that date the population did not exceed forty thousand, and Ludgate was the West End, so that the chance was rather in favor of the enamored damsel meeting with her hero. At all events—so runs the legend—her Oriental accents happened to arrest his ear, and the emir's daughter being converted to Christianity, and immersed in a baptismal font, became the wife of the worthy citizen for whom she had braved perils by sea and land. In due time, about the year 1117, a son was born to them, and named Thomas; and he, proving a handsome lad, and exhibiting extraordinary intelligence, was educated for the priestly office. Going on a mission to Rome from the Archbishop of

Canterbury, Thomas à Beeket rendered eminent services to the Plantagenet cause; and being appointed Chancellor of the realm on Henry's accession, he became the King's bosom friend, and lived in a style of unrivaled magnificence. In 1160 Beeket was sent to Paris, to negotiate a marriage between the King's eldest son, Henry, and an infant daughter of the French monarch. His retinue was superb. Two hundred boys preceded the procession, singing national ballads; after whom rode the huntsmen with hounds and the falconers with hawks, followed by eight baggage wagons, each drawn by five horses. Next, with monkeys on their backs, were twelve sumpterhorses; behind which came war-steeds, led by esquires bearing shields, and a host of domesties, high and low, all riehly attired. Lastly, escorted by hundreds of knights and barons, appeared the observed of all observers, the great Chancellor himself. "Surely," exelaimed the French, dazzled with so much state, "the King of England must be a wondrous prince when his minister travels with so much display!"

An anecdote, illustrative of the familiarity with which the Norman king treated his Anglo-Saxon favorite has been preserved. One cold and windy day, while they were riding through the streets of London, attended by a gay cavalcade, their attention was attracted by a beggar in tattered garments, upon whose approach Henry asked if it would not be a laudable act to give the old man a warm cloak.

Becket replied, that it would assuredly be well if the King turned his thoughts to such matters. Henry observed, that Becket should have the merit of so charitable a deed; and, sportively laying hand on the Chancellor's fine searlet cloak, lined with ermine, succeeded, after a tussle, in handing it to the mendicant, who received the gift with equal pleasure and surprise, while the courtiers indulged in a merry laugh at Becket's expense.

More serious was their subsequent struggle. About 1161 Becket was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, and jestingly remarked, "A fine saint I shall make!" He soon, however, became an altered man, renounced the vanities of the world, repented in sackcloth, subsisted on the coarsest fare, and, instead of keeping the company of princes, was seen, in harvest, assisting the monks of rural abbeys to make their hay, or reap their corn. Gradually, from a champion of the royal prerogative, he appeared as a stickler for the privileges of the priesthood, and assumed toward Henry an attitude of hostility. The dignitaries of the Church deserted their champion in the hour of strife. The bishops took part with the King; and the abbots, whispering to their older brethren that the Primate was going too far, held aloof from the quarrel, and cared not to stir beyond the regions where their abbeys, shaded by trees and surrounded by gardens, reposed in peaceful solitude. But Beeket had won the hearts of the inferior clergy, and became the idol

of the English people. At Northampton, insulted by the King and disavowed by the prelates, he gave a sumptuous banquet, to which he invited the poor, lowly, and needy; and, after entertaining them hospitably, stole away to the Continent, where he was supported by the Pope and protected by the King of France, both of whom found it convenient to attempt a reconciliation between the contending parties.

Their efforts were for a time fruitless; but, in 1170, a congress was appointed to be held on a summer day, in a pleasant meadow, on the borders of Touraine. Henry was first on the ground, and no sooner espied the Archbishop approaching than he set spurs to his steed, and saluted him cap in hand. They discoursed for a while in the most friendly manner, and, when taking leave, Henry even bowed his pride to hold the churchman's stirrup. Becket then sailed for England, where his arrival was hailed with enthusiasm by the populace; but three bishops, whom he had deposed, repairing to the Continent, demanded redress from the King, and represented that Becket was setting the country on fire. Henry, as sometimes happened, lost his temper, and in a fit of violence muttered, "Will no one rid me of this troublesome priest?" Whereupon four knights, construing the expression literally, crossed the sea, hastened to Canterbury, and when the shades of a December evening had fallen, and the spacious church was unlighted save by a lamp glimmering before the shrine, they

rashly slew the haughty Archbishop at the foot of the altar.

While Henry, horrified at the consequence of his hasty words, was endeavoring, through envoys, to make his peace with Rome, a series of events resulted in the subjugation of Ireland. In bygone centuries that rich and beautiful island had been the seat of learning and religion; her saints had been famed for their piety, and her ecclesiastics venerated throughout Christendom. But the invasion of the Danes caused a relapse to barbarism, and the predatory feuds of the chiefs precluded improvement. An active trade, however, was maintained with Bristol; and in the summer of 1167, while Henry was struggling with Becket, there landed at that port a tall, stout, rough, odd-looking man, with a cunning expression about the mouth and a suspicious glance about the eye, who proclaimed himself as Dermot, prince of Leinster, and expressed an ardent desire to speak with the King of England.

That was not always an easy matter; for Henry's movements were so singularly rapid, that his enemies suspected him of ubiquity. But Dermot sought out the King in Aquitaine, and made a rambling statement, to the effect that the beautiful dame of a certain chief, named O'Ruarc, had volunteered to play the part of Helen; that he, albeit somewhat loath, had consented to be her Paris; and that the injured husband had, in revenge, driven him from his throne.

Henry, with the image of Fair Rosamond in his memory, was hardly entitled to cast a stone at an erring man; and it is not likely, therefore, that he took his visitor to task for yielding to temptation: but his self-command must indeed have been great, if, while listening to the story told in a hoarse voice, and while surveying the speaker's exterior, he did not indulge in a smile or a jest to conceal his surprise at the Hibernian lady's eccentricity of taste. In any case, having no time to deal with the affair himself, he provided his Irish visitor with letters-patent, permitting any of his subjects to render assistance.

Thus armed, Dermot hied back to Bristol, where he rendered himself conspicuous by having the royal letters publicly read, and making liberal promises to obtain auxiliaries. His efforts were quite vain, till chance threw him in the path of Richard de Clarc, better known as Strongbow, earl of Pembroke. A bargain was speedily struck. The Norman earl undertook to restore Dermot to the throne of Leinster, and the Irish king engaged to bestow upon his ally the hand of his daughter and heiress, the Princess Eva. Strongbow, having been preceded by a part of his forces, sailed from Milford Haven, captured the city of Waterford, led to the altar his affianced bride, and conquered L large part of the country. Henry, by no means relishing the news of a subject performing so much, after some preliminaries conducted an army to Ireland in 1171, and personally received the homage of the various princes among whom that island had been divided.

Meanwhile the King's position at home was in no respect so pleasant as a bed of roses. Though he had stood for forty-eight hours, fasting and barefooted, on the floor of the cathedral at Canterbury, where Becket had fallen, and even endured the humiliation of being beaten with stripes by the monks, misfortune seemed to haunt him. Queen Eleanor and her sons instigated by Bertrand de Born, the knight, poet, and satirist, rose in rebellion, and were abetted in their unnatural course by Louis of France. At the same time, in concert with them, William the Lion, king of Scots, invaded Henry's dominions, and committed cruel depredations, till he was taken prisoner, while unwarily tilting in a field near Alnwick, by one of the vigilant barons of the North. On being carried to Normandy, a treaty was signed, whereby Scotland was brought under vassalage, and Ermengard, a soft and insinuating kinswoman of Henry's, was given in marriage to the royal Caledonian.

Soon after this, death laid low several of the royal family. Young Henry, who for some time had shared the throne with his sire, was seized, while leading a rebel army, with a fever, which proved fatal. His brother, Geoffrey, father of the ill-fated Arthur of. Brittany, was killed in a tournament at Paris; and the discovery, while on the bed of sickness, that "the child of his heart," John Lackland, had conspired

with his foes, afflicted the King so deeply, that, at the age of fifty-seven, he closed, with feelings of anguish, a life spent in schemes of ambition.

Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, having attended the hearse which bore his father's corpse to the Abbey of Foutrevalt, repaired to England, and prepared for a crusade, to which he departed in three months. While he was absent in Palestine, domineering over his companions in arms, or working like a private soldier at the battering engines, or breaking the bones of Saracens with his ponderous battle-ax, England became the scene of anarchy. A massacre of the Jews, begun in London on the coronation day, was repeated in several towns; and the struggles for the regency between Pudsey, bishop of Durham, and Longchamp, bishop of Ely, together with John's aspirations after the crown, produced endless confusion. At length, in 1194, Richard, escaping from his prison, landed at Sandwich, after an absence of four years; but he immediately left England to carry on a war against his continental rival, Philip Augustus.

Meantime the serious discontent, which the unequal pressure of taxation had long caused in London, ripened into a popular movement, at the head of which was William Fitzosbert, surnamed Longbeard. Going to Normandy, he had an audience of the King, and admitted that the war with France was just, but demanded that the taxes raised to prosecute it should fall equally on rich and poor. Richard promised re-

dress; but nothing being done, Longbeard tried seditious courses, harangued mobs daily at St. Paul's Cross, and styled himself "King of the Poor." The daring demagogue, after being twice dragged at a horse's tail, was hanged, with nine of his confederates, on a gibbet at Smithfield. Plague and famine soon after ravaged the land, and miserable was the condition of its inhabitants.

When Richard died of the wounds inflicted by the arrows of Bertrand de Gurdon, Prince John was proclaimed king; and it appears—so small was the interest taken by the English in the disputed succession—that the name of Arthur of Brittany was not even mentioned when his uncle was crowned. But when that hapless prince had been murdered, and John chased from the Continent by Philip Augustus, the spirit of freedom was aroused, and feelings of mutual interest united the Norman barons and the Anglo-Saxon people against a sovereign at once base, defiant, and cowardly.

At this critical period John chose to brave the wrath of Rome by exiling Stephen Langton, whom the Pope had appointed to the see of Canterbury, and driving out the monks at the point of the sword. The kingdom was, in consequence, laid under interdict, the King was deposed, and the subjects were absolved from allegiance. The anointed craven was so terrified at the consequence of his defiance, that he solemnly and abjectly went on his knees to the papal legate,

and resigned his crown to the supreme Pontiff. The Pope thereupon changed sides; but the spirit of English freedom, which now animated both races, was too strong to be resisted. The burghers of the realm formed an alliance with the barons, and the barons marching to the capital, were joined by knights and nobles from all parts of the kingdom.

The heart of the tyrant shrank within him, and he consented to grant all the rights and liberties required. Accordingly, on a morning in June, 1215. the dastard King met the Barons of England-for such they now prided themselves on being-at Runnymede, a green field near Windsor, hard by the river Thames, and there was presented to him that immortal seroll known as Magna Charta, in which the privileges of the clergy, the rights of the barons, and the liberties of the people, were formally and solemnly recognized. John, considering it no time to be squeamish, signed the charter, as well as that regarding forests, with the utmost promptitude; but the barons, having no reliance on his good faith, compelled him to name twenty-five of their number as conservators of the hard-won privileges.

John, having no intention of submitting to the restraint imposed, soon gave indications of defying the terms dictated. After a futile attempt to surprise London, he gloomily retired to the Isle of Wight, and dispatched agents to the Pope, who readily absolved his vassal from the oath by which he had confirmed



MAGNA CHARTA.



the charters, and directed fulminations against the refractory barons. Thus encouraged, and with the assistance of mercenary soldiers from the Continent, John besieged the baronial castles near London, and then marched to the north, where the Lords De Vesci, De Ros, and Perey, were peculiarly contumacious. The cause of the barons appeared desperate; for, though they could have made head against a royal army composed of hirelings, the spiritual artillery of Rome palsied their efforts, and, in extreme perplexity, they formed an alliance with Philip of France, and offered the crown to his son Louis.

Philip grasped at the proposal; and in May, 1216, Louis, with a gallant army, set foot on the shores of England. After taking the castle of Rochester, the French prince advanced to London. The nobles and citizens, receiving him with joy, conducted him ceremoniously to St. Paul's, where prayers were said and homage performed. John, abandoned by his army and menaced by the King of Scots, was in despair; but his days were numbered. Overtaken by the tide. while crossing the Wash in Lincolnshire, the ernel and faithless tyrant was so disconsolate at the loss of his regalia, baggage, and treasure, that he sought shelter for the night in the Abbey of Swinehead. There he ate so ravenously of fruit, and drank so copiously of eider, that he was seized next day with a fever, of which he died in agony and remorse.

Henry III., son of the deceased king, a boy of eight-

was crowned at Gloucester, under the auspices of the Earl of Pembroke; and being deserted by his mother, Isabel of Angoulême, who rushed off to the Continent in search of another husband, he soon became an object of interest to the nation. Thus there arose a feeling, which the clergy, under the inspiration of the Pope's legate, turned to account. Every Sunday the sentence of excommunication was fulminated in the parish churches against the English barons and the French prince. The very helplessness of the royal boy touched the hearts of the people; the barons gradnally gathered round him; Louis, after a vain struggle, sailed for France; and the administration of affairs was confided to Pembroke, a nobleman whose courage, wisdom, and moderation pleased all parties. Then the boy-king, entering London amidst the cheers of the citizens, granted them a new charter, and was crowned by Stephen Langton with the golden diadem of Edward the Confessor.

In 1239, when Henry had arrived at years, without learning discretion, there came from beyond sea a queen, in the person of Eleanor of Provence, bringing with her such a swarm of foreigners, male and female, that the English, who had already resented the King's continental sympathies, were, with much reason, alarmed. The men were provided with baronies at the public cost, while their fair sisters selected husbands from among the young noblemen who happened to be royal wards. These Gascon adventurers of both

sexes exercised a baneful influence over the King, grasped at the highest dignities, and emancipated themselves from all respect for charters by frankly declaring that English laws were nothing to them. So slight was Henry's regard for appearances, that, in 1253, when about to embark for Guienne, there to encounter the King of Castile, he committed the custody of the Great Seal to Queen Eleanor; and thus might have been seen a lady judge presiding in the Court of Chancery, sitting in the old marble chair, over against the marble table, and executing the duties of an office which, up to that date, had been held by churchmen of eminence or warriors of renown.

At length, in 1258, affairs arrived at a crisis. A famine had brought the nation to the verge of despair; the people unhesitatingly ascribed all their wretchedness to the foreign courtiers; and in May a parliament assembled at Westminster. Henry, when entering the Hall of Audience, which had been built by William Rufus, was surprised to hear the rattling of swords, and to observe that the barons were sheathed in steel. Resistance was out of the question; they compelled the impotent King, whose hereditary antipathy to the constitution was notorious, to delegate the regal functions to twenty-four of their league; and these potentiaries were headed by Simon de Montfort, the famous Earl of Leicester.

Montfort, a younger son of that leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, who had fallen in his harness before Toulouse, had succeeded to the earldom of Leicester, as heir to his mother, and wedded a sister of King Henry. But though a Frenchman by birth, he endeared himself so much to the barons and people of England, that they overlooked his foreign origin, and regarded him as the champion of liberty. He had long since quarreled with the King, had no favors to expect from the court, and was eager for the reform of abuses. Montfort first remodeled the Parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights chosen from each county; but the representatives thus elected disliked the great baron's authority so much that they determined on restoring Henry to power.

In fact, though the humbled monarch was a man of a feeble understanding and a credulous disposition, the royal family contained one prince of intrepid spirit in action, and with rare talents for command. Edward, the King's eldest son, had first seen the light in 1239, and been named after the Confessor, whom Henry regarded as his tutelar saint. In 1255, the Prince had married Eleanor of Castile, who, a few years later, when her husband's life was imperiled in Palestine by the envenomed dagger of an assassin, is reported to have proved her conjugal devotion by sucking the poison from the wound. To this gallant youth the knights of the shire complained of the ruling barons having done nothing for the benefit of the state, but every thing for their own advantage; and Prince Edward answered, that he would stand by the gentlemen of England to the last drop of his blood. In order to make good this promise, Edward raised a formidable force, and encountered Montfort at Lewes, in Sussex, where the royal army was totally defeated, and both the King and the Prince taken prisoners. Upon this, Montfort assumed the position of governor of the realm; and having, by threats of electing a new king, compelled Henry solemnly to recognize his authority, assembled a Parliament, summoning two knights from each county, and representatives from all the principal boroughs, thus reconstructing the immemorial assembly, since so widely renowned as the House of Commons.

The Earl's supremacy was so little agreeable to his peers, that some of them, among whom was Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, conspired to effect his downfall. Montfort, aware of their plot, went westward, with the King and the Prince as prisoners in his train, to punish Gloucester; but while keeping his court during Whitsun week, within the walls of Hereford, a circumstance occurred which opened up a new and interesting scene.

On the afternoon of Thursday, the 28th of May, 1265, Prince Edward, attended by his guards and escorted by a number of young knights, rode forth from the ancient city, as if to divert a few hours of his irksome captivity with equestrian exercise. The prince, who had then seen about twenty-six summers, looked by far the most remarkable man in the com-

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pany. His countenance was comely, his complexion dark, his hair black and curling, his frame strong, though slender, his stature taller by a head and shoulders than ordinary men, and his eye brillant with fire, thought, and intelligence. The steed he bestrode was not unworthy of such a rider; for it had been lately presented to him as a mark of respect by Roger de Mortimer, with a significant hint that its fleetness might be depended on in case of need. And then that frank, handsome personage, whose affable conversation-whether relating to the field-sports, which he well loved, or to the feats of prowess displayed at the French tournament, in which he took part four years earlier-had inspired those around him, though publicly his enemies, with affection for his person and pity for his misfortunes, proposed to test the speed of their chargers on Widmarsh. Giving his own steed to be held by a page, he rode so many matches himself, one after another, that when the shades of evening began to fall, there was no fresh horse on the ground but his own noble animal, which proudly pawed the ground at a short distance. Suddenly, on the ascent of Tulington Hill, a man riding a white horse appeared, and waved his bonnet. Prince Edward said nothing; but mounting his steed, he courteously bade adieu to his keepers, and spurred off at a pace which rendered pursuit vain. His guards did indeed, as in duty bound, make an attempt to follow; but they were glad to turn back, when out of a wood sallied Roger de Mortimer, and joyously conducted the Prince to the castle of Wigmore. At Ludlow they joined the Earl of Gloucester; and the royal standard being there set up, Edward soon found himself at the head of a gallant army.

Montfort, who had endeavored to terrify the Prince by a threat of perpetual imprisonment, no sooner heard of the escape than he issued orders for a general rendezvous at Gloucester-a city which he had strongly fortified; but ere the appointed day arrived, Edward, after besieging the place for a week, forced his way into it through a wall of the abbot's orehard. Montfort thereupon invoked the aid of Llewellyn, the Cambrian prince, who sent forward a band of Welshmen, and commenced pillaging the Marches. Montfort advanced to Monmouth, demolished the castle, and after a considerable delay was enabled to cross the Severn, and reach Evesham on the Avon, where he expected the arrival of his eldest son, but meantime the latter was attacked and defeated by the Prince at Kenilworth.

Unconscious of that fatal disaster, Montfort was informed at sunrise, on the morning of the 4th of August, that the banners of his son were rapidly advancing, and ascending a tower he computed the numbers of the approaching force. On discovering that it was the royal army marching under the captured colors, he remarked—" These men come on bravely; they have learned that from me:" and then turning to his friends

he exclaimed, "The Lord have mercy on our souls; for the Prince will have our bodies!" After taking the sacrament, as was his wont in seasons of peril, Montfort prepared for battle. Fierce was the strife, till his horse was killed under him. He cried for quarter; but being told there was none for such a traitor, fought on foot till he was cut down, sword in hand. With this famous baron, who was long after venerated by the people as Sir Simon the Rightcous, fell a multitude of nobles, knights, and gentlemen.

Prince Edward, having restored Henry III. to the throne, assumed the cross, and followed his maternal uncle, Saint Louis of France, on his last crusade to the East. There the victor of Evesham gave fresh proofs of his valor in the field and his capacity for affairs. He had concluded an advantageous truce with the Sultan of Babylon, and was at a village in Calabria, on his way home, when informed that his royal father had closed his perturbed career.

The condition of England, from the Norman conquest to the close of Henry's reign, had been miserable. The country had been infested by bands of outlaws who laid waste entire villages; even the officers of the royal household had shifted for a living on the public highway. The castles of the Normans had been, in many cases, like garrisons in a hostile country, and regarded as the abodes of tyranny and cruelty. The weak and timid had been so frequently exposed to peril and injury, that even ladies found it

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expedient to accomplish themselves in martial exercises. The authority of the Norman sovereigns had been too fluctuating to be beneficially felt, and the laws too feeble to afford redress. On Henry's death a new scene was to be presented. His son came from romantic adventures in the East, and hair-breadth escapes on the Continent, to redeem the kingdom from anarchy and confusion; to render its inhabitants more prosperous than ever they had been before; to popularize his dynasty and his race; to induce the Men of the Forest—the successors of Robin Hood—to forsake their haunts, and draw their bows of trusty yew against the enemies of their country; and to win for himself, by his admirable laws, the proud title of the English Justinian.

In August, 1274, after an absence of years, Edward and his excellent queen landed at Dover, and prepared to present themselves in the capital. Perhaps he might have misgivings as to his reception there; for, in other days, the Londoners had been on the point of drowning his mother as a witch; and in retaliation he had, on the downs at Lewes, marked out their militia as the objects of his fiercest attack. Now, however, all was forgiven; and the royal pair were welcomed with signs of love and honor. The streets were gayly hung with silks and tapestry; wine flowed in bucketfuls; and the municipal functionaries manifested their joy by throwing from the windows handfuls of gold and silver. The people, who

had recovered their ancient spirit of loyalty, were proud, as they well might be, of a monarch in the prime of manhood, so famous and so majestic; and they felt that, after an interval of two centuries, the crown at length rested on the brows of a prince who was animated by an English heart and guided by popular sympathics.

When Edward was crowned, with unprecedented magnificence, in the Abbey of Westminster, the man most likely to create disturbance was Llewellyn, prince of North Wales; who, unlike the King of Scots, failed to attend and swear allegiance. Soon after, the Cambrian chief's affianced bride—a daughter of his old ally, the great Montfort—being intercepted on her passage from the Continent, was retained in gentle captivity about the person of the Queen. Llewellyn, enraged, fell with fire and sword on the English Marches; and in 1277, Edward, repairing to Chester, crossed the Dee at Midsummer, and reduced the Welsh to the necessity of suing for peace.

Thus, when the season of Christmas arrived, Llewellyn appeared in London to render homage, and with him the chieftains of Snowdon, whose retinues were so inconveniently numerous, that they were lodged at Islington and the adjoining villages. The testy strangers soon began to grumble. The mode of living, they said, was not agreeable; the supply of milk was stinted; the ale and wine were not to their liking; and the derisive curiosity excited in

public places by their uncouth appearance, wounded their national vanity. Under the pressure of such annoyances they conspired to rebel, and on returning to their mountain homes inflamed their kinsmen against English rule. Evening after evening the sept, circling round their harper, listened with delight to songs about their mystic Arthur, and glowed with enthusiasm at predictions of his return from Fairyland to vindicate their rights, redress their wrongs, and render their race, as Cambrian bards expressed it, "the crown of Britain." Llewellyn, while gratifying their superstitious ideas by opening Arthur's tomb, yet expressed himself in terms so plausible, that the English King not only treated him with kindness, but gave back his Norman bride, and bestowed a barony on his brother David.

A few years passed, and in the spring of 1281 Edward was reposing at Devizes, whither a messenger spurred with the intelligence that, on the stormy night of Palm Sunday, the castle of Hawarden had been surprised, and its garrison put to the sword, by David of Wales. Edward at first refused to believe this of a man whom he had reared and enriched; but when convinced that the Marches were blazing with fires and deluged with blood, resolving to be no longer trifled with, he vowed to make a final conquest of the provinces. The enterprise was not accomplished without difficulty; but at length, by patience and perseverance, the English prevailed. Llewellyn was slain in

a fight in the valley of the Wye; David, being captured, was executed as a traitor; and the Welsh submitted, after having held out for eight long centuries against Saxon and Norman. To conciliate their affections, the King presented to them his second son, Edward—then an infant in the eastle of Caernarvon—as a native prince who could not speak a word of English. But shortly after, the death of Prince Alphonso—Edward's eldest son, a boy much admired for his beauty and courage—made young Edward heir to the crown, and from that date the King's eldest son has borne the title of Prince of Wales.

About the time when Edward succeeded in reducing Wales, important events occurred in North Britain. Scotland was a province widely different from that which he had just subjugated; and it did not, in any respect, present the same scene as when Hengist drove its barbarous tribes to their sterile mountains, or when the expatriated Saxons sought an asylum within its borders. The Piets and Scots -long antagonistic races-had become as one people, and inhabited the regions north of the Forth. Galloway had been annexed to the crown; and Fergus, its last prince, forced to drag out his existence in the cloisters of Holyrood. Lothian, after forming part of Northumberland, had been restored on condition of the inhabitants retaining their English customs and language; and thither had such multitudes of exiles been driven or tempted northward after the conquest,

that from the Frith of Forth to the Tweed's fair borders the population boasted of Norman, Saxon, and Danish blood. Several noblemen had acquired fiefs and exercised influence in both kingdoms; districts formerly barren had been cultivated; and arts tending to polish the aborigines had been introduced. David I., contemporary with Stephen, had done much in the process of civilization. During his long reign had been founded, endowed, and tenanted with monks from beyond the seas, the magnificent abbeys of Melrose, Dryburgh, and various other places. Orchards and gardens had rapidly appeared. Towns had arisen, in which bluff burghers, by foreign trade, acquired vast wealth. Feudal castles had been erected, within whose walls belted barons gave sumptuous feasts, and bright ladies, arrayed in rich garments, sighed or wept at the melting strains drawn by Saxon bards from magic harps. While the country was in this condition, the third Alexander, last of the Scottish kings, was killed, in 1286, by a fall with his horse over a steep cliff, while galloping in a dark night near Kinghorn, in Fife. He left no heirs except his infant grand-daughter, the Maiden of Norway; and many of the Scottish magnates refusing to accept a female as their sovereign, rendered her succession doubtful

Thus it happened that while Edward was in France, during the year 1289, there came to him embassadors from Eric, king of Norway, eraving protection for his daughter, and from the Parliament of Scotland, requesting aid to terminate their intestine disorders. Their negotiations resulted in the Maiden of Norway being betrothed to the Prince of Wales, and setting sail from her native shores in 1290. But falling sick during the voyage, the infant Queen of Scots was taken ashore at the Orkneys, and there expired in her eighth year.

Thirteen claimants appearing for the vacant throne, King Edward was invited to arbitrate; and going to the Borders, he, after several preliminary meetings, assembled the prelates, nobles, and knights, of both countries in the eastle of Berwick, where the various claims were duly considered, and found untenable, save those of Baliol, Bruce, and Hastings. Ultimately the preference was awarded to John Baliol, who, after swearing fealty to the English king, was crowned on the stone of destiny in the regal halls of Scone.

Edward was careful that the Scots should feel the power they had acknowledged, and treated their new king with so much rigor, that Baliol declined the royal summons to repair to Gascony, formally renounced his allegiance, and allied himself with Philip of France.

The King of England, when thus defied, was repressing some outrages in Wales; and he soon afterward marched northward with an army of forty thousand men. Halting at Newcastle, he summoned

Baliol thither; but receiving no answer, he proceeded to Bamburgh, where he was exasperated with one of those occurrences which prove that history is stranger and more capricious than fiction.

Robert De Ros, the young lord of Wark, descended from the old hero of that name, whose effigy may still be seen in the Temple Church, became so violently enamored of a Scottish lady, that, abandoning his castle, he went over to the enemy, and leading the garrison of Roxburgh, assaulted the advance guard of the English army while they were encamped for the night at a Border village. The attack was so sudden, that the leader with difficulty escaped to the English army to tell of the disaster, which kindled the King's ire. He thanked God that his enemies had begun the war, and without delay led his whole forces to Wark.

Within that strong eastle, situated on the south side of the Tweed, Edward kept the festival of Easter, and revolved his plans for the subjugation of Scotland. Many of her chief nobles were favorable to his views; and among these Patrick, earl of Dunbar and March, was in authority the first. The feudal house of which he was the head had been founded by Cospatrick, a Saxon prince, who sought refuge after the Conquest at the court of Malcolm Canmore. The Earls of Dunbar had hitherto, in peace and war, exercised no inconsiderable influence on the affairs of Scotland; but their hearts had lingered in the land where their

ancestors had held sway; and the Earl, whose power on the Marches was supreme, now came to Wark, with his kinsman Robert Bruce, and Gilbert, earl of Angus, to renew the oath of fealty to the English King.

Thus strengthened, Edward crossed the Tweed, took Berwick, defeated a Scottish army at Dunbar, accepted Baliol's resignation of the crown at Perth, and formally received the allegiance of the nobles and clergy. Soon after the national records were delivered to Cressingham, the English treasurer; the chair on which the Scottish kings had from time immemorial been crowned was carried out of the realm; and the banner of St. George was waved in triumph over every eastle in the fertile Lothians.

At this conjuncture arose William Wallace, represented as a leader of prodigious strength, gigantic stature, pleasing aspect, and popular address. He was the son of a knight who had been slain while fighting on his knees against the English. Young Wallace, the inheritor of his sire's animosity to Southern domination, had slain an Englishman of noble parentage and been outlawed. He now presented himself in the character of a Scottish patriot, and the vanquished party rallied round him as their captain.

The martial King of England had gone to appease some discontents of his nobles and clergy, before undertaking a war against France. Those whom he had left in authority were charged with errors as well as excesses, and the malcontent Scots deemed the period propitions for an outbreak. Wallace, joined by the Lord Douglas, marched to Scone, and expelled the garrison; the fascination of his successful exploits now drew around him many who had hitherto shrunk back; and the insurgents were joined by the younger Bruce, the Stewarts, and other persons of eminence.

Edward, on learning of these occurrences, ordered Warrene, earl of Surrey, the guardian of Scotland, to suppress the insurrection without delay; and the militia north of the Trent were called out for that purpose. Warrene sent forward his nephew, who, entering Scotland, compelled the combined chieftains There was, however, one exception, to surrender. and that was Wallace, who, after defeating Warrene's army while passing over a wooden bridge near Stirling, dashed on to Edinburgh, dismantled the strongholds in Lothian, and compelled the fighting men to enter England in hostile array. He then ravaged Northumberland, killed many of the inhabitants, and secured much spoil; but, after being successfully defied by the townsmen of Newcastle, he deemed it prudent to beat a retreat.

Meantime, King Edward having concluded a truce with France, came from Flanders, convened a parliament at York, and appointed a general rendezvous of his forces at Midsummer, when he led an army against

the Scots. On the 21st of July, 1298, while encamped at the village of Kirkliston, he was informed that the Scots were in the wood at Falkirk, and gave orders for marching in that direction. At this crisis it was reported to him, that the Welsh in his army meditated deserting to the Scots. "I care not a jot," exclaimed Edward, with lofty disdain; "let them go, and on one field I will chastise all mine enemies." Next day he came up with the enemy, and a bloody battle took place. The Scots, for a time, stood their ground bravely; but, after losing fifteen thousand men, Wallace fled from the field, and burned the town of Stirling in his way. Nevertheless he continued in arms till 1304, when he was betrayed, and conveyed to London, where, after being tried in the great hall at Westminster, he was condemned as a traitor, and executed. His head was placed on a pole over London Bridge, and his legs and arms were sent to be publicly exhibited in the principal towns of the North.

Next year, King Edward published an act of grace to the offenders, and calculated on the duration of peace; but at this period a new champion presented himself to the struggling Scots, in the person of Robert Bruce, the Norman Earl of Carrick. Bruce was grandson of the baron of that name who had formerly claimed the crown; and he was of Scandinavian ancestry, extraordinary capacity, a knightly and active frame, and in the flower of his age. He had hitherto figured as a waverer between the contending parties,

but, in reality, was concerting measures for seizing upon the Scottish crown; and in the winter of 1305 his schemes were revealed to Edward. Bruce was then residing in London, and quite unaware of his danger; when one evening he received from the Earl of Gloueester a small sum of money and a pair of spurs, as a warning to fly. Bruce took the hint, had his horse's shoes inverted, lest he should be tracked in the snow, and next morning set out betimes for Scotland. On the road he encountered a messenger from John Comyn of Badenoch, surnamed the Red; the man was forced to surrender his dispatches, and Bruce, on perusing them, found that the King was therein urged to put him to death. Enraged beyond measure at Comyn, who had enjoyed and betrayed his confidence, Bruce pressed forward, and on the seventh day of his journey arrived at the castle of Lochmaben.

On the 10th of February, 1306, a youthful knight, with a graceful figure and broad shoulders, a handsome countenance, yellow hair, and blue sparkling eyes, reined up his steed before the church of the Gray Friars in the picturesque town of Dumfries, and entered the sacred edifice. That striking personage was Robert Bruce, earl of Carrick, and in the interior he met by appointment with the Red Comyn. Conflicting accounts are given of their conversation; but it appears that, after a violent altercation, Bruce, with a disregard of the sanctuary which his Danish progen-

itors could not have surpassed, grasped his dagger, plunged the weapon into his enemy's body, and hurried from the church. His friends in attendance, perceiving his paleness and agitation, anxiously inquired the cause. "I doubt I have slain Comyn," replied Bruce, while nervously mounting his horse. "You doubt?" exclaimed Sir Thomas Kirkpatrick: "I will secure him." And deeming it no time to be squeamish, the fearless Borderer rushed into the church, and completed the murder so sternly that part of Comyn's blood was spilt on the altar. Bruce now rode to the castle, and turning out some recently-appointed judges, seized the place. Being joined by a number of the Scots, he achieved such considerable triumphs as to be crowned at Scone; but two successive defeats compelled him to seek refuge in the small, neglected island of Rachrin, amidst the roaring waves of the Atlantic. While lurking there he was excommunicated by the Pope; several of his adherents were executed, and others were imprisoned. His enemies had ceased to fear, and his friends had naturally despaired, when the hero again took the field with a band of devoted followers, twice defeated the English captains, and then recruited his forces in woods and marshes, which enabled him to defy pursuit.

Edward was keeping Lent at Winchester when the news of Bruce's exploits made him aware that the grand scheme of uniting the two kingdoms was in serious danger. Though the reverse of wantonly cruel,

the great Plantagenet was not so forgiving as to dream of sparing his enemies; and had he been in the season of youth or manhood, their position would not have been enviable. But the victor of Evesham and Falkirk, the conqueror of bearded Saraceus, the English sovereign who had won and retained the hearts of his people against the influence of castle, cathedral, and counting-house, was on the verge of threescore and ten, paralyzed by infirmity, and struggling with disease. Conveyed to London in a chariot, and conscious of decay, he trusted to inspire the Prince of Wales with his martial spirit. Accordingly, on the eve of the feast of Pentecost, the Prince, with a few young nobles, preparatory to taking equestrian rank, watched their arms in the Abbey of Westminster; while two or three hundred more performed the ceremony in the Temple Church. Next morning, the Prince, after being knighted by his sire, conferred the distinction on his companions; and at a banquet the King manifested his ruling passion by conjuring the youthful sons of chivalry never to sleep two nights in one place till they had avenged the slaughter of Comyn and punished the perfidy of the Scots. Without delay, the Prince and his associates set out for the Border. The King prepared to follow more leisurely.

Eight years previously, the grave having closed over his beloved Queen Eleanor, Edward had wedded a French princess; and she attended him in his last expedition. On arriving at Carlisle his weakness and enthusiasm increased together, and he became fretfully impatient to proceed. But his journeys were necessarily so slow, that after four days' traveling from Carlisle he only reached Burgh-on-the-Sands, a distance of six miles; and there, on the 7th of July, 1306, while raised on his couch to swallow some food, the brave soul of that able, ambitious, and popular monarch parted from the once strong but now shattered tenement of clay.

Edward II. was a weak, indolent, capricious prince, and utterly incompetent to realize his predecessor's ambitious projects. Bruce is said to have declared, that "he was more afraid of the bones of the dead monarch than of his living son, and that it was more difficult to wrench a foot of land from the first Edward than a kingdom from his successor." Abandon ing the prosecution of his father's cherished object, and passing over to France, the young King married Isabel, daughter of Philip the Fair, and speedily disgusted his nobles by the partiality shown to Piers Gaveston, a frivolous minion, who, recalled from the exile to which the late king had condemned him, irritated the barons to an extreme degree. The reckless favorite being imprisoned, and attempting to escape, was seized and beheaded.

Meantime Robert Bruce, aided by his nephew, Randolph, earl of Moray, and Sir James Douglas, surnamed "the Good," was so successful in shaking off the English yoke, that those inhabitants of Scotland who had from the beginning of the war stood truly by the King of England, found themselves in a situation of peril and perplexity. To represent their sufferings, the Earl of Dunbar repaired to Edward's court, in the winter of 1313, and was assured of relief in the ensuing summer. To fulfill his promise, Edward crossed the Tweed with such an army as had never, perhaps, left England before, and on the 23d of June his vanguard came in sight of the Scottish force, where it had been strongly posted by the rivulet of Bannockburn, near Stirling.

It was Sunday evening, and the setting sun glanced on the polished armor of that host of warriors, as, with floating ensigns and heraldic emblazonry, they presented themselves to the eager gaze of the Scots. In front, on a priceless charger, a gift of the Bishop of Durham, rode Gloucester's Earl, the third knight of his age, contending with Hereford for the honor of leading the van. Under trusty captains, in bodies of ten thousand, the bulk of the army marched onward; while in the midst of a splendid company waved the royal standard, where, supported by Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, skilled in Scottish struggles, and Sir Giles de Argentine, fresh from the wars of Henry of Luxembourg, rode the inadequate representative of a father in the grave who had subdued Wales, and of a son in the cradle who was to subjugate France.

At this point, Bruce was recognized by his former

comrades, the English cavaliers, riding along the front of his lines on a palfrey; and Henry de Bohun, sheathed in steel, spurred his barbed courser to the attack. The result was unexpected: for Bruce, after warding off the knight's thrust, raised his ax, and with a single blow stretched Bohun lifeless on the ground. Next morning the battle was begun in earnest, by a charge of English eavalry; whose shoek was so firmly withstood, that victory inclined to the Scots. Gloucester was beaten from his horse, and killed; Argentine fell while attempting his rescue. Many knights were swallowed up by pits, which had been dug with that view, and covered with brushwood; and the rout was so complete, that Edward, with a body of horse, left the field closely pursued by Douglas; and after a ride of sixty miles found security in the eastle of Dunbar, whence he escaped by sea to England.

Untaught by experience, the weak King found a new favorite in Despenser, whose unmerited elevation completed the disaffection of the nation. Queen Isabel viciously joined the malcontents, and, having inveigled her son to France, formed a disreputable intimacy with an exile named Mortimer. Indeed Despenser and his father had given Isabel such offense, that, bent on revenge, she obtained assistance from the French monarch, landed on the coast of Suffolk, and was so successful in her enterprise, that the Despensers expiated their offences on the scaffold, and

the King, abandoned at once by nobles and citizens, was reduced to the utmost extremity. After a futile attempt to pass over to Ireland, he was found lurking in Wales, and compelled to resign the crown, which was bestowed on his son. The deposed sovereign was committed to Berkeley Castle, where, after being inhumanly treated, he was put to death in 1327.

Edward III., being then only fifteen, was under the control of his mother and Mortimer, who styled themselves Regents; but next year the young King married Philippa of Hainault, and soon after asserting his authority avenged the assassination of his father. Queen Isabel was imprisoned at Castle Rising; "her gentle Mortimer" was hanged at Tyburn; and public affairs were placed in a more creditable position.

At this period, Robert Bruce having terminated an eventful life, and being succeeded on the Scottish throne by his son David, a boy of six years old, guarded by Randolph, earl of Moray, Edward Baliol, who had hitherto resided on his French estates, was inspired with a desire to regain the crown which his father had for a time worn. The King of England opposed a hostile attack on Scotland, which was projected; but Baliol's confederates eluded his vigilance, made the invasion by sea, and won several victories. Baliol being solemnly crowned at Scone, assumed the title of "The Conqueror;" and the young Bruce's guardian, with other men of mark among the Scots, having indiscreetly broken the peace with England,

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Edward issued a declaration of war, marched with an army to the Borders, and in May, 1333, laid siege to the town of Berwick, over whose wall, thirty-seven years earlier, his mighty grandsire had leaped his charger, Bayard, into the midst of an exasperated gar-Before its gate the young King remained till the middle of July, when a Scottish army, led by Archibald Douglas, guardian of the kingdom, who had vainly attempted to withdraw Edward from his position by threatening the impregnable castle of Bamburgh, where the excellent Queen Philippa was, recrossed the Tweed to offer battle. Edward moved his forces to Halidon Hill, near the town; and on that eminence-his full, dark eye flashing fire, his lips firmly compressed, and his precociously grave countenance shaded by a shower of long black ringlets-he awaited the attack, which was delayed by an unexpected occurrence.

Several years previously, King Robert Bruce, while hunting, had been unhorsed by a wild bull, and in the utmost peril of being gored to death; when forward sprang a huge Scot, who, after grappling fiercely with the animal, prostrated its bulky form on the ground, and thus acquired the name of Turnbull. Being present at Halidon, and ambitious of fresh laurels, he presented himself with long strides between the embattled hosts, and, accompanied by a huge mastiff, defied any man in the English army to the combat. The challenge was of so novel a kind that there was

a pause, till Sir Robert Benhale, a young knight of Norfolk, dismounted, and eame into the arena. The monstrous dog flying savagely at him, was instantly killed; and its master fared no better, for the gallant Benhale, after eluding some fierce blows, first wounded his antagonist in the arm, and then smote off his head. The Scots, seeing their gigantic champion fall, uttered a howl of vengeance, and rushed madly up the hill. For a moment their onslaught seemed irresistible; but the English spearmen stood firm; and the archers, bending their bows, sent forth a shower of arrows. The Scots, panic-struck, fled in disorder; and Edward, at the head of a select body of horse, pursued them five miles into their own country.

After a victory so signal the town surrendered, and Edward marched into Scotland. David Bruee, the boy-king of Scots, with his queen, Edward's sister, Joan, fled to France; and Baliol was seated on their throne; but the nation was so hostile to his pretensions, that, descending from the dangerous eminence, he transferred his claims to the English King, and died in obscurity.

King Edward now, however, found a wider field for the exercise of his martial genius, in enforcing his elaims to the crown of France, as heir to his maternal uncles, and in 1338 sailed with a fleet and a small army. The campaign was barren of results, for the King was almost dependent on lukewarm foreigners; and it was not till 1340, when he defeated the French fleet off Sluys, that any thing considerable was accomplished.

At length, in the year 1346, much money having been fruitlessly spent, the Parliament and the people expressed a wish that the King might be no longer duped by foreigners; and Edward, collecting an English army, embarked for Normandy-many a young knight binding up one side of his face with a silken vibbon, and swearing before the ladies and the peacock never to see with both eyes till he had performed certain feats of chivalry. In the autumn arrived news, that the King of England, standing on a windmill at a village named Crecy, had seen a mighty and magnificent French army give way in consternation before his scanty ranks; that the famous crossbowmen of Genoa had shrunk back in dismay before a shower of English arrows; that the chivalry of France and the counts of Germany had been scattered by the knights, and gentlemen, and yeomen, who fought around the juvenile Prince of Wales; that finding his successive assaults repulsed with fearful loss, the King of France-brave as he was-had been forced to fly from the lost field; that the blind King of Bohemia, hearing of his son being wounded, and indignant at the idea of yielding to a warrior in his teens, had placed himself, with interlaced bridles, between two knights, and fallen in a desperate charge; and that the Bohemian plume of ostrich-feathers was worn in triumph as the crest of the irresistible heir to the crown of England.

While the English at home were elate with these tidings, and the English abroad were besieging Calais, the King of Scots, at the instigation of the French monarch, marched from Perth at the head of a formidable force, and penetrated to Durham. There, by an English army, said to have been assembled by Queen Philippa, he was defeated with loss, and led captive to the Tower. Intelligence of a greater victory was ere long bruited about, when the Black Prince -so called from the color of his plate-armor-met John of France at Poitiers, and after routing an army incomparably more numerous than his own, brought the French King prisoner to England. The captive and his victor entered London in the spring of 1357; the former, riding a stately cream-colored charger, and the latter, at his side, enacting with chivalrous respect, the part of page, on a small black pony. The English King treated John with the utmost courtesy, and lodged him in the Savoy, where the hapless monarch expired in 1364.

Edward long survived to experience the instability of human affairs. In 1367 the good Queen Philippa went to the tomb; the Prince of Wales followed: that hero's son, Riehard, became heir apparent at the age of ten; and the French, though scrupulously avoiding a battle, regained most of their territory. The King's last days were disturbed by a riot, which had its origin in a memorable occurrence.

John Wicliffe, born about 1324, in the county of

York, having at Oxford attained a high reputation for learning, assailed the errors and corruptions of the Church of Rome. Being brought to trial before the Bishop of London, the reformer was escorted to St. Paul's by Lord Percy, marshal of England, and the King's son, John of Gaunt, duke of Laneaster. The latter, growing violent, threatened to kick the prelate out of the church; and the populace, in revenge for that insult, after breaking open Percy's house, proceeded to the Duke's palace of the Savoy, which they gutted. The Bishop's influence ultimately put down the riot; and the Lord Mayor, with the Aldermen of the city, repairing to Richmond, eraved pardon for their offenses. A few months later, in June 1377, the King closed his eyes forever.

On the 16th of July, Richard II., a boy of eleven, the inheritor of his father's popularity, was erowned with unusual splendor, and war forthwith commenced with France and Spain. But it was the reverse of glorious; and hardly had the King been four years on the throne when the imposition of a poll-tax roused the populace to frenzy.

Geoffrey Chaucer, the father of English poetry, and the kinsman of John of Gaunt, has, in his "Canterbury Tales," drawn a pieture of England in his lifetime, which extended from 1328 to 1400. There, side by side, at the board of mine host of the Tabard Inn, figure the squire, affluent and full of mirth; the franklin, rejoicing in a rough plenty; the rural par-

son, truly preaching the Gospel, and revered by his parishioners; the poor Oxford scholar, with a lean horse, proud of his books and respected for his learning; the physician, skilled in the art of healing; the monk, with his bald crown shining like glass; the friar, who could sweetly listen to confessions, and pleasantly grant absolution; and the abbess, so tender-hearted, that she would weep at the thought of the small hounds she daintily fed being struck, or even at the sight of a mouse caught in a trap. But though the classes represented by the poet's life-like portraits, lived in comfort and freedom, it was far otherwise with that section of the people who were struggling out of serfdom. Thus Jack Straw, a riotous priest, was enabled to incite the peasantry of Essex to refuse payment of the poll-tax, and four English counties were speedily in violent agitation.

At that time there lived at Dartford, a markettown in Kent, a man named Wat Tyler, who supported his humble household by the calling to which his name alludes; and into his cottage, in the summer of 1381, went a tax-gatherer to demand payment of the impost from his daughter. Wat's wife protested that the girl was under fifteen, and, therefore, not liable; but the tax-gatherer, saying he would soon ascertain, laid hold of the damsel with indelicate freedom. Thereupon the indignant good-woman cried to her husband, who was tiling the roof of a house hard by; and Wat, making his appearance, killed the offi184

cial on the spot. The neighbors applauded the action; and the Kentish men, with Wat as their captain, and John Ball, a demagogic priest, as their chaplain, after creating a riot at Canterbury, marched toward London. At Blackheath, where the insurgents are stated to have numbered a hundred thousand, they suddenly met the Princess of Wales, the King's mother; but even then they retained sufficient respect for the widow of the Black Prince to dismiss her, with her retinue, in safety, after she had allowed a few of them to salute her fair cheek. Entering London, and indulging to excess in strong potations, the rioters spoiled and burned the Savoy, the stately and beautiful palace of the Duke of Lancaster, who was then absent in Scotland. They next destroyed Newgate, the Temple, the Priory of the Knights of St. John, and the Sanctuary of the Flemings, sixty of whom were beheaded, as well as many other wealthy citizens

After two days of terror and anarchy, the rioters were informed that the King would confer with them at Mile End; and issuing from the Tower, Richard gave such satisfactory assurances, that the rioters from Essex and Hertford went quietly home. But the Kentish men, under Wat Tyler, breaking into the Tower, beheaded the Primate, the Treasurer, and other officers of state; and the posture of affairs was most alarming when the King, next morning, after hearing mass at Westminster, mounted and rode eastward. Attended by John Walworth, the lord mayor,

and sixty other persons, he encountered the multitude. Wat Tyler came up to speak to the King, and spurred so close, that the head of one horse touched the flank of the other. The daring leader, playing with his dagger, seized Richard's rein; upon which Walworth rode forward and wounded him severely in the neck. Wat wheeled round to address his followers, but an esquire, named Standish, felled him to the ground. "You have killed our captain," shouted the Kentish men, and bent their bows; but at that moment the Royal boy rode forward, and lisped out, "My lieges, I am your king, and I will be your captain." The insurgents could not resist such an appeal; some knelt for pardon, and others took to the corn-fields. Unfortunately, the King afterward declared that these fair promises meant nothing.

When John of Gaunt went to pursue his Spanish claims, his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, became all-powerful; and during his administration the Scots invaded the north of England, and won the battle of Otterburne. Richard then mustered courage to dismiss Gloucester, intrusted affairs to the guidance of the Duke of York and Henry of Bolingbroke, and, having prevailed on Parliament to vote him a revenue for life, became so absolute, that no man durst question what he did. Several noblemen were executed; and he availed himself of a dispute between Mowbray, duke of Norfolk, and Henry of Bolingbroke, to banish the former for life, and the latter for ten years.

John Froissart, son of a heraldic painter in Hainault, and canon of Chimay, who, in quest of information, had traveled through England, France, and Scotland, and who has depicted in glowing pages the chivalrous scenes of his age—the sieges, battles, tournaments, and banquets—visited the court of Richard, who presented him, on leaving Windsor, with a silver goblet and a hundred nobles. The chronicler, familiar from his youth with Edward III., whose institution of the Order of the Garter marks the epoch of English chivalry, states that Richard maintained a household the costliness and splendor of which threw that of all his predecessors utterly into the shade, and contrasts that magnificence with the miserable result.

The catastrophe was indeed sudden; for, while Richard was in Ireland in 1399, Henry of Lancaster (his father, John of Gaunt, being dead) landed at Ravenspur, and, favored by the people, broke into open rebellion. Betrayed and abandoned, Richard took refuge in Flint Castle, but being discovered in the guise of a priest, and conveyed to London, a Parliament, on being summoned, accomplished his deposition. He was then committed to Pontefract; though what was his subsequent fate is still a historic mystery. The politic Henry ascended the throne; and thus were sown the seeds of dynastic disputes, which sprung up and ripened into the long and sanguinary struggle between the rival Houses of York and Lancaster.

CHAPTER V.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Henry IV., in seizing the throne, had been mainly indebted for assistance to the powerful Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland. After landing at Ravenspur, and being joined by those Northern barons, he had sworn in their presence at Doncaster that he claimed nothing beyond his paternal estates, and they were naturally somewhat startled when he grasped at the crown; but Henry silenced their scruples by nominating Westmoreland marshal of England, and conferring on Northumberland the dignity of Constable, with the lordship of Man.

Anxious to prove his courage and capacity in the field, the new King made a hostile expedition as far as Edinburgh, but finding the impracticability of bringing the Scots to a battle, he returned, without having effected any thing considerable, to suppress a formidable rebellion that had broken out in Wales.

Several years before this period there had been studying law, at one of the Inns of court, an imaginative Welshman, named Owen Glendower, who, through his mother, claimed a descent from the celebrated

Llewellyn. The youth had previously been educated at one of the universities, and was sufficiently accomplished to be admitted as an esquire in the household of King Richard. On the deposition of that monarch Owen retired to his small estate, which lay near the territory of Lord Grey de Ruthin, and a portion of his lands having been seized by that baron, he applied for redress to the House of Lords. His petition being rejected, Owen resolved to take the law into his own hands, and one day, when a fair was being held in Lord Gray's town of Ruthin, he suddenly appeared with a band of wild Welshmen, who, after plundering the merchants, set fire to the place. This achievement was so grateful to his countrymen, that such of them as were students or apprentices in England flocked home to take part in the insurrection; and Owen, being proclaimed Prince of Wales, not only baffled Henry himself in three campaigns, but defeated and took prisoner Sir Edward Mortimer, uncle of the young Earl of March.

Such was the state of matters, when, at Homeldon, on a September day, a Scottish army, led by the Earl of Douglas, was encountered by the Percies. The Scots occupied a hill, and Harry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, was about to charge up, when the expatriated Earl of Dunbar, seizing his rein, hiuted that the English archers had better commence the onslaught. The advice was taken; the Scots fell in heaps; Douglas, descending the hill, was captured; and the flower

of the Scottish nobility lay stretched on the acclivity. But a dispute arising in regard to the prisoners taken on this occasion, and about the ransom of Mortimer. Northumberland and his fiery son entered into concert with Owen Glendower, and formed a plot to dethrone Henry, and place on the throne the boy-Earl of March, whose aunt Hotspur had married. Douglas, who had lost an eye at Homeldon, joined the enterprise; but the rebel army was defeated at Shrewsbury; Hotspur was slain on the field; and Northumberland, with his grandson, fled into Scotland. Soon after this, Henry. prince of Wales, whose life had hitherto been the reverse of decorous, defeated the eldest son of Owen Glendower, and so harassed the latter, that he disguised himself as a shepherd, and ultimately died in obscurity.

Scotland was at this period torn by intestine feuds and domestic quarrels. Robert III., a man of weak and indolent disposition, occupied the throne, but was entirely under the control of his brother, the unscrupulous Albany, who accused the duke of Rothsay, heir-apparent, of treasonable designs, threw him in a dungeon, and starved him to death. The King's surviving son, James, apprehensive of a similer fate, consulted his safety by sailing for France; and the vessel which conveyed him being captured by an English ship of war, he was brought prisoner to London. Robert sank under these misfortunes; and Albany, with the title of Governor, continued to exercise

sovereign authority. Shortly after this, the life of Henry, which had been embittered by the plots of his enemies and the juvenile indiscretions of his son, the Prince of Wales, terminated in 1413.

Henry V., on ascending the throne, threw off his follies and his rakish companions, as the wild steed shakes drops of dew from his mane. He magnanimously removed the body of the second Richard from Langley in Hertfordshire, and had it interred, with the honors due to royalty, in the Abbey of Westminster, where he attended the funeral, and declared that he mourned as if it had been the corpse of his own father. He then released the young Earl of March, who, touched with the kind treatment he met with, became henceforth devoted to Henry's service.

Having thus created for himself that popular favor which his father had been unable to retain, Henry turned his eyes toward France, and revived the claim of his illustrious great-grandsire, the victor of Creey to the crown of that kingdom. Crossing the sea with an invading army, which a contagious fever wasted to a fifth of its original numbers, he sent a challenge to the Dauphin to decide the succession by single combat. But the French prince declining a personal encounter, their armies met at Agincourt, where the English, against fearful odds, gained one of the most glorious victories on record.

Henry, after a short visit to his own kingdom, for the purpose of recruiting his forces, returned to France, fought his way to Paris, and succeeded in concluding a treaty, whereby it was agreed that he should espouse Catherine, daughter of the French monarch, and inherit the crown as her dowry. Catherine's brother, the Dauphin, was not a party to this arrangement, and on Henry's departure for England with his bride the French were victorious in a battle against the royal Duke of Clarence. Henry's return to the scene of action changed the face of matters; but while pursuing his triumphant career, the English King, "too famous to live long," was seized with a mortal disease, of which he died in 1422. His body was brought to England, and interred with extraordinary pomp at Westminster, where his tomb was long regarded with peculiar veneration.

Henry VI. was an infant of nine months old when, on the death of his heroic father, he was proclaimed King at London and Paris. His paternal uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was declared Regent of France and Protector of England; but in the latter country the administrative functions were delegated to the Duke of Gloucester. Bedford, one of the bravest and most sagacious men of the age, was devoted to the interests of his nephew, and governed France with great ability; but, unfortunately, he was cut off during the severe struggle which followed the death of Henry V., and the English were deprived of all their French acquisitions, except Calais and Guignes.

Meantime, the condition of England was far from

satisfactory. So long, indeed, as Bedford lived, his influence had been wisely exerted and beneficially felt. At the beginning of the reign the Scots had invaded the frontiers with two distinct armies, but peace was secured in that quarter by the liberation of their king, James I. With the temperament of a poet, as he was, the royal Scot had, during his prolonged confinement in the Tower, formed a romantic attachment to Lady Jane Beaufort, daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and cousin of the King. The captivating princess was given to him in marriage, a long peace was agreed to, and so far matters went smoothly. But Gloucester possessed neither the judgment nor authority of Bedford; his schemes were perpetually thwarted by Cardinal Beaufort, a rich, powerful, and intriguing churchman; and his power was ere long totally destroyed.

When Henry had reached his twenty-fourth year, it was found that, though possessed of monastic virtues, he was totally destitute of kingly spirit or intelligence, and it was thought good policy to unite him to some princess of energy and decision. The Earl of Suffolk proposed Margaret of Anjou, cousin of the French Queen, and was empowered, in defiance of Gloucester, to negotiate a marriage, and conduct her to England. Margaret's father, René, though titular King of Naples, Sicily, and Jerusalem, was so poor, that Henry had to defray the cost of his bride's voyage homeward; and she, hating Gloucester for his op-

position to her elevation, soon made her dislike evident.

In the first instance, his beautiful duchess, Eleanor Cobham, was confined to a castle in Man as a sorceress; and soon after Gloucester himself—"the good Duke Humphrey," as the English called him—was arrested while attending a parliament, and in a few days found dead in his bed. But this rendered the Queen and Suffolk so unpopular, that the latter was impeached, and banished the realm. However, while sailing toward Calais, his vessels were taken by an English ship-of-war; the Duke, after remaining on board three days, was transferred to a boat; there he was lawlessly beheaded, and the people rejoiced that the darling of the Queen, whom they detested as "the foreign woman," had expiated his misdeeds.

While the national discontent was at its height, Jack Cade, an Irish soldier, pretending to be one of the Mortimers, roused a multitude to insurrection, and ealled himself the Captain of Kent. On the 24th of June, 1450, Cade defeated the royal forces at Sevenoaks, entered London in triumph, murdered Lord Say, slaughtered many of the city magistrates, and finally, being cast off by his followers, fled for life; but he was closely pursued, and finally slain, by Alexander Eden, an esquire of Kent.

The Queen had taken into her confidence the Duke of Somerset, when there appeared a claimant of the crown which the meek Henry wore. This was Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, whose father was descended from the fifth, but his mother from the second, son of Edward III., and whose title was there fore preferable to that of the line of John of Gaunt. The splendid achievements of Henry V. had more than made up for a defective title; but, deeming that the hour had arrived for asserting his rights, York, in 1452, raised an insurrection, with the avowed object of driving Somerset from power. Being met by the King at Dartford, induced to dismiss his forces, and trust himself at court, he was seized and imprisoned. York's enemies, aware that his eldest son Edward, earl of March, was in arms on the marches of Wales, thought it prudent to set him free; but the durance had served to inflame his ambition, and the King's derangement encouraged his designs.

The house of Lancaster had, no doubt, been strongly established; but York found friends, who would have been formidable to any dynasty. He had married a daughter of the Earl of Westmoreland, chief of the house of Neville, deriving its descent from a Saxon thane, and then by far the most important in England. One of its younger sons had, with the hand of an heiress, acquired the earldom of Salisbury, displayed his valor in the wars of France, and earned a reputation for wisdom, knowledge, and experience. Salisbury's eldest son, Richard Neville, was still more eminent; for he had wedded the heiress of the Beauchamps, and succeeded at once to their title of Warwick and to

their vast possessions. Warwick was, beyond comparison, the noblest subject in England, and the most popular personage in Europe. On the field of battle his prowess reminded men of the heroes of romance; and he was the idol of the soldiery. His nature was generous, his patriotism intense, and his hospitality all but unlimited. In London he kept open house; six oxen were usually consumed at a breakfast; and every fighting-man was allowed to walk into the kitchen and help himself to as much meat as could be carried away on the point of a dagger. At the same time about thirty thousand persons were fed daily at the Earl's mansions and castles in various districts of England. Such was the potent baron, who, with his father and several of their noble kinsmen, warmly espoused the cause of the Duke of York.

When Parliament assembled in 1454, after Somerset had been sent to the Tower, York was nominated Protector, till Edward prince of Wales, who had been born in the previous year, came of age. The authority of Henry would thus have been set aside, if Queen Margaret had not been a woman of too defiant a spirit to submit tamely. Availing herself of Henry's partial recovery, she dismissed York and liberated Somerset. Then civil war commenced; the Yorkists, assuming a white rose as their badge, took up arms; the Lancastrians, choosing a red rose, raised the royal banner; and the hostile forces met at St. Albans. Victory fell to York; Somerset was slain, and the King taken

prisoner: but Parliament, while it confirmed York's authority as Protector, maintained its allegiance to the son of the hero of Agincourt. By the end of 1459, the Queen's high spirit so effectually sustained the courage of her friends, that the Lancastrians gained considerable advantages; York fled to Ireland; the Neville barons made their escape to Calais; and Henry's cause was in the ascendant. York's estates and those of his friends were confiscated; they were declared rebels and traitors; and in revenge for this severity, the Earls of Salisbury, Warwick, and March, landed in Kent, and marching to London were received with open arms by the citizens. Proceeding to Northampton, they routed the royal forces, and seized upon Henry, while his dauntless Queen fled into Wales, and thence into the bishopric of Durham.

After this victory the Duke of York, returning from Ireland, openly claimed the crown in Parliament, and was declared the rightful heir; but it was decided that Henry should continue king for life, and that York should rule as Protector. Margaret could not submit to a settlement so disadvantageous to her son; she organized an army in the northern counties, where the barons were devoted to her, and once more scattered her foes at Wakefield. York was slain in this battle; his second son was killed when flying; and the aged Earl of Salisbury, being captured, was mercilessly executed.

Margaret now threatened to execute vengeance on

the metropolis for the part it had taken against her, and the citizens were pale with fright as they thought of those spears of the North that had encircled King Henry's crown. Their fear, however, passed away; for on the 25th of February, 1461, all eyes were gladdened with the sight of Edward of York, as he led his forces thither from the slaughter of Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross. The victorious prince had not seen more than twenty winters; his face was a model of manly beauty; his person was singularly handsome; and his martial bravery was indisputable. The people declared him the goodliest personage they had ever seen; the men of Kent and Essex flocked to gaze upon their favorite; and amidst the enthusiastic shouts of "Long live King Edward!" he rode through the city in triumph, and mounted the throne at Westminster

Meantime, from beyond the Humber, barons of great name brought warriors with stout hearts and strong hands to the standard of Queen Margaret at Towton; and northward, to encounter them, marched the Yorkist King, under the inspiration of Warwick. At nine o'clock on the morning of the 26th of March the two armies met, in the midst of a heavy fall of snow; and Warwick, dismounting, killed his horse, declaring that he would conquer or die. Edward ordered that no quarter should be given, and after a furious fight till the afternoon, victory fell to the Yorkists. Queen Margaret, attended by the Dukes

of Exeter and Somerset, carried her helpless husband into Scotland, and found refuge at the court of her congenial kinswoman, Mary of Gueldre, while Edward returned to London, where he was crowned with the usual ceremonies.

At Grafton-under the roof of her father, Sir Richard Woodville, who had long before wedded Jacquetta, relict of the Protector-Duke of Bedford-Elizabeth Gray, a young and accomplished widow, was mourning the loss of a husband, slain while fighting for the red rose; when Edward, going to amuse himself with hunting in the forest of Whittlebury, paid the old knight and his duchess a visit. Elizabeth's beauty fairly captivated the heart of the youthful King; and the duchess managed matters so skillfully, that the enamored monarch at length proposed a private marriage. Accordingly, on the 1st of May, that morning of the year when in merry old England young people went to the fields and gathered may or green boughs to deck their houses, and when milkmaids wreathed their pails with garlands, and prepared to dance round maypoles, the Duchess, with two gentlewomen, conducted her daughter to the little chapel, where they were met by the King, the priest, and the mass-boy; and there, with the utmost secreey, King Edward received the hand of the very charming young widow.

While Edward was thus defying the future, civil war was raging in the North; and on the 15th of May, 1464, Margaret gave battle, at Hexham, to

Lord Montagu, the brother of Warwick. The Lancastrians were dispersed with great slaughter, and their Queen escaped with difficulty into a wood, leading her little son by the hand. In the dusk of evening they were met by a gang of robbers, who, after seizing the Queen's rings and jewels, allowed her to escape while they wrangled over the spoil. Margaret continued her flight, till, faint with fatigue, she sat down to rest for a short space. Suddenly she perceived coming toward her one of the bandits with his sword drawn, but, mustering up her natural courage, she presented to him the ill-starred prince, saying, with her most majestic manner, "Here, my friend, save your king's son!" The outlaw, touched with compassion, treated them with profound respect, and being acquainted with every avenue of the forest, conducted them to the coast, where he procured a vessel, which landed them in Flanders. Henry was less fortunate: elosely pursued from the field, his helmet and equipage were captured; and after lurking for a year in the eaves and woods of Lancashire he was discovered, and committed to the Tower.

The result of the encounter at Hexham was such, and the dispersion of the vanquished so complete, that when September arrived Edward ventured to reveal his marriage, summoned a great council of barons and prelates in the abbey of Reading, induced his brother George, duke of Clarence, and the Earl of Warwick, to present Elizabeth to the assembled peers as their queen, and in the spring of 1465 had her crowned at Westminster, amidst feasts and tournaments.

So far all was well; but, in 1467, unpropitious events occurred. The hand of Edward's sister, Margaret, was sought for by the son of Louis XI. of France, and by Charles, Duke of Burgundy. Warwick urged the policy of an alliance with France, and was sent to Rouen to negotiate a marriage. But while the stout Earl was on the Continent, an illegitimate brother of Charles appeared at the English court, and was successful in obtaining from Edward a promise that Margaret should become Duchess of Burgundy. Warwick, considering that he had been insulted, retired in wrath to his eastle of Middleham; and subsequent affairs so exasperated his proud spirit, that, in 1470, he repaired to France with the Duke of Clarence, who had married his daughter Isabel. There, in the castle of Amboise, Warwick made his peace with Queen Margaret, and contracted his daughter Anne to Edward the Lancastrian prince of Wales. Landing in England, the Earl drove Edward to seek shelter in Burgundy, and restored the monkish Henry to the throne; but the royal exile returning suddenly, gathered a numerous army, and took the field at Barnet. Warwick, though deserted on the eve of battle by the perjured Clarence, made a noble struggle, and fell, fighting bravely on foot, along with Lord Montagu.

Margaret, arriving at Weymouth on the evening after Barnet had been lost, was defeated by Edward at Tewkesbury, on the banks of the Severn. Prince Edward fell into the hands of the Yorkist King, by whose brothers he is said to have been stabbed. Henry was already in their power, and is supposed to have been murdered by the Duke of Gloueester. Margaret took refuge in a convent, but was seized and imprisoned in the Tower, where she remained till ransomed by her father. The position of the Laneastrian lords was sad in the extreme. Somerset was beheaded; Oxford was sent to a castle in Picardy, and confined for the next twelve years, while his Countess supported herself by needlework. Exeter, who had been left for dead on the field of Barnet. escaped to Flanders, where, reduced to poverty, he was observed running after Charles of Burgundy. The two Dukes had married sisters; but so wretched was Exeter's condition, that Burgundy could not recognize in the bare-legged mortal before him the once proud and exalted representative of the great House of Holand. On learning that his brother-in-law was so depressed, Burgundy settled a small pension on the hapless nobleman; but the latter did not survive to see the smile of fortune's better day, his corpse being soon after found floating in the sea near Dover.

The throne of Edward was now secure; and collecting an army of eighteen thousand men, he landed at Calais to attempt the conquest of France. Louis,

however, contrived to have an interview with the invader on a bridge near Amiens, with a strong barricade of wood between them, and bribed and pensioned the King of England to go home.

From that date the life of Edward was spent in hunting, dressing, and love-making. But, in 1478, becoming suspicious of his brother Clarence, he summoned a Parliament, and appeared as prosecutor. The Duke was pronounced guilty, and afterward drowned in a butt of malmsey. Two years later, Edward went to his grave in the new chapel at Windsor, leaving two sons and several daughters.

Edward V. was a boy of thirteen when his father died. Richard, duke of Gloucester, who was then Warden of the West Marches, immediately moved southward with five thousand men, and being imbued with the maxims of Italian policy, entertained the design of using his authority as Lord Protector to seize upon the crown. It was therefore given out that the late King had been, in boyhood, married to the Lady Eleanor Talbot, and therefore that Queen Elizabeth's children were illegitimate, while the attainder of Clarence had disqualified his offspring. Lord Hastings, who stood by the sons of his departed master, was accused of treason and executed, as the Lords Rivers and Grey had already been. The King and his brother were in the hands of Gloucester, who had lodged them in the Tower.

Of late years, the city of London, from always

favoring the house of York, had acquired much influence in the destinies of the nation. Gloucester, therefore, gained over the Duke of Buckingham; and that prince of the blood being a man of power and intellect, induced the Lord Mayor and Aldermen to offer the throne to the Protecter, who accepted it with apparent reluctance.

Richard III. was crowned on the 6th of July, 1483, with his wife Anne, daughter of the great Warwick, and immediately undertook a royal progress through the country. Learning that, during his absence from London, plots were formed to free the young princes, Richard, while at Gloucester, sent a messenger to Brackenbury, governor of the Tower, commanding him to make away with the royal boys. Brackenbury declined the business, as altogether too perilous; and Richard thereupon sent Tyrrel, his Master of the Horse, with a commission to get and keep possession of the Tower for twenty-four hours. Tyrrel, accompanied by his groom and another ruffian, went on an evening in August to the chamber where the princes were asleep, and remained outside till his accomplices smothered the unfortunate boys. Tyrrel then entered, viewed the lifeless bodies, and had them buried beneath the stairs.

Richard had scarcely attained the object of his ambition when he seized and beheaded the Duke of Buckingham, on the charge of conspiracy; and on the death of his only son in 1484, he is accused of having murdered his Queen, in order to strengthen his position by a new matrimonial alliance. But the usurper, however vigilant and unscrupulous, could not resist his fate; and men began, in the hour of extreme need, to look for deliverance to a prince who had a very slight claim to be considered as the heir of the Lancastrian kings.

Three or four years after the death of the conqueror of Agineourt. his graceful and beautiful widow, Catherine of France, became the wife of Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman of obscure position, but of ancient descent. They had, besides other children, two sons, Henry, earl of Richmond, and Jasper, earl of Pembroke; and the former, having married Margaret Beaufort, daughter of the first Duke of Somerset, grandson of John of Gaunt, became the father of a boy named Henry. From his fifth year, the lad had always been a captive or a fugitive; and when double that age, his existence had been all but forgotten. In 1471, however, his uncle, the Earl of Pembroke, whose spotless loyalty to the house of Laneaster had entailed on him the harsh necessity of wandering over Europe as a vagabond, happened to visit his Welsh estates, which had been bestowed during his exile on a Yorkist named Herbert. There, in the custody of Herbert's lady, he found the young Earl of Richmond, whom he brought to London, and presented at the court of Henry VI. But when the result of Tewkesbury had wrecked the hopes of the Lancastrians, Pembroke and his nephew embarked to seek refuge from Louis of France; and

their vessel being driven on the coast of Brittany, they were detained as captives, but still treated handsomely, by Duke Francis, who steadily resisted Edward's efforts to procure their extradition. At length Richard, by corrupting Landois, the Breton minister, was on the point of securing Richmond, when the latter, warned of the plot, fled by forest-paths to the French court, and was supplied with men and money by King Charles. In Normandy he was met by the Earl of Oxford, who had escaped from prison. They landed their little force in Wales, and were speedily joined by the natives and several English noblemen. Richard assembled a large army; and about a mile south of Bosworth, on a spacious plain encompassed by hills, the two armies met on an August morning. Richard, with the crown on his head, advanced his lines; and the new Duke of Norfolk commenced the attack. the rest of his army wavering, Richard shouted "Treason!" and, spurring his war-steed, made a fiery and impetuous charge. Carrying all before him, he penetrated even to his competitor's banner, killed Sir William Brandon, who bore the standard, and smote another knight to the ground. He then raised his weapon to slay Richmond himself; but the host closed upon him, and being unhorsed he was pierced with many wounds. Lord Stanley picked up the crown, and placed it on Richmond's head. A cry of "Long live King Henry!" rung over the field; and the mangled corpse of the last Plantagenet king, being

placed on horseback, was conveyed to Leicester, and there exposed to the public gaze, that none should entertain doubts about the tyrant's death.

Henry VII., first king of the Tudor line, when seated on the throne, espoused Elizabeth, eldest daughter of the fourth Edward, but manifested so little affection for her family that the partisans of York were far from satisfied; and the Duchess of Burgundy, aunt to the new Queen, encouraged them to rebellion.

The first attempt to disturb Henry's peace was made by Lambert Simnel, the son of a joiner, who pretended to be the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence; but as Henry had that guileless young nobleman in captivity, he took means to satisfy the public of the imposture, and did something toward suppressing the rising spirit of discontent by crowning his Queen as the rightful heiress of the line of York. Nevertheless, Simnel having passed over to Ireland, was proclaimed King at Dublin; and the Duchess of Burgundy, having furnished him with a body of German auxiliaries, he landed in England, and was supported by the Earl of Lincoln, Lord Lovel, and other · men of rank. But they were totally defeated, and their leader, Martin Sevart, killed, at the village of Stoke, near Newark. Lincoln was slain on the field; Lovel swam the Trent on horseback, and is supposed to have afterward lived concealed in a subterranean apartment of his house in Oxfordshire; while Simnel, being taken, was employed to carry wood to the royal kitchen, and finally appointed one of the falconers.

Simnel's insurrection was succeeded by one of a more serious character. King Henry had, at the Emperor's request, undertaken an expedition against France; and the opportunity was seized to bring forward a new claimant in the person of Perkin Warbeck, the son of a Flemish Jew, but born in London. Perkin had in childhood been taken by his parents to Tournay, between which place and Antwerp he long roved, living much in the company of Englishmen, and acquiring proficiency in their language. On approaching manhood he became known to the Duchess of Burgundy, who, considering him a fitting instrument for her purpose, maintained him in secrecy till he was fully instructed in the part he had to play. It was then announced that he was the Duke of York, youngest of the princes smothered in the Tower; and the likeness was acknowledged to be striking. The Duchess publicly called the "Flemish counterfeit" her nephew, gave him the title of "The White Rose of England," and appointed him a guard of halberdiers. On the breaking out of the war he was invited by King Charles to Paris, and there received with the honors due to royalty. But Henry, having agreed to a peace with France, the aspiring youth repaired to Flanders, where he was openly joined by many Yorkists. Hitherto the disaffected in England had been like a rope of sand, and incapable of acting in concert.

They were now inspired with the hope of making head against King Henry's power.

A descent on the coast of Kent was first attempted, but proved unsuccessful; and an expedition to Ireland was not more fortunate. Perkin then sailed to Scotland, persuaded King James that he was a real prince. That chivalrous monarch testified implicit belief in the cunningly-devised fable, by giving him the hand of Lady Catherine Gordon, a lady of rare excellence and exquisite beauty; and then mustering an army, he marched over the border to support Warbeck's pretensions. The latter, professing the tenderness of a sovereign for his natural subjects, protested against the ravages of the Scots; on which James, beginning to suspect the imposture, replied that his ally was too solicitous about what, perhaps, was none of his own, and returned home. To avenge this inroad, the Earl of Surrey crossed the Tweed, took the fortress of Aytoun, and ravaged the Merse.

Warbeck, landing again near Exeter, was joined by some Cornish insurgents; but on Henry's taking the field in person he fled in the darkness of night, and his adherents dispersed. Pursued, and taken at the sanctuary of Beaulieu, Perkin was sent under a guard to London, confined in the Tower, and hanged as a traitor at Tyburn. About the same time, the unfortunate Earl of Warwick was unjustly condemned and beheaded. The Lady Catherine was found, on Warbeck's flight, at St. Michael's Mount, and retained

for a while in gentle captivity about the person of the Queen.

Order being restored, Henry applied himself to forming royal alliances for his children. His eldest son, Arthur, prince of Wales, was united to Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand of Spain; and the Princess Margaret was bestowed upon the Scottish King. This state marriage was destined to exercise no small influence on the future of England. Henry now felt secure, and having boasted that a wall of brass was built around the kingdom, he expired in 1509.

Arthur, prince of Wales, having died soon after his marriage, the erown was inherited by his brother Henry VIII., who was regarded as a prince of great promise. The Yorkist faction were content to recognize him as the true representative of his maternal grandfather; and the young King considered his right to the crown of England as so much better than his father's, that he determined to take part in the Continental wars, with the view of recovering the ancient possessions of the English kings in France. In the mean time, having obtained a dispensation from the Pope, he espoused Catherine, widow of his deceased brother, and their nuptials were succeeded by six months' feasting, jousts, and tournaments.

In order to draw Henry into the Italian league, the Pope sent him a golden rose dipped in chrism and perfumed with musk, accompanied by letters full of complaints against Louis of France. Upon this, Henry landed at Calais with an army, and commenced hostilities. In this emergency, Louis invoked the aid of his single ally; and his queen, Anne of Brittany, wrote the Scottish monarch a letter, entreating him to march into England for her sake, and sent him a ring from her own fair hand, with fourteen thousand crowns in money.

From the period of the bridal of James and the Princess Margaret, his kingdom had enjoyed an unwonted degree of repose; the arts of peace had been cultivated with encouraging success; and the populace had been delighted with tournaments and other exciting spectacles. This invitation could not, therefore, have been highly relished. Yet, so fantastic were his ideas of chivalry, that James assembled a numerous army, and entering England in August, 1513, took Fordcastle, with other strongholds, and ravaged Northumberland without opposition. Henry was still in France; but the Earl of Surrey, having mustered a force, and being joined by his son, the Admiral of England, gave the Scots battle at Flodden, on the banks of the Till, and gained a decisive victory. The King of Scots fought with heroic valor, but on seeing his standard-bearer fall rushed into the thickest of the fray, and fell pierced with many wounds. Ten thousand of his subjects, including a large proportion of his nobles, were slain; and his eldest son being a child of seventeen months old, the state of Scotland was so deplorable, that Henry, from motives of policy and humanity, agreed to a suspension of hostili-

Next year a peace was concluded with France, and Louis, having in the mean time lost his queen, espoused Henry's sister, the Princess Mary. Louis dying soon afterward, his royal widow, in the bloom and beauty of seventeen, was bestowed upon the Duke of Suffolk; and from this marriage sprung the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey.

When King Francis, in his impetuous pursuit of glory, commenced with the Emperor Charles that struggle which cost so much blood and treasure, Henry inclined to an alliance with France, renewed the treaty of peace, and appointed a conference with the chivalrous monarch at Calais; but his politics were soon changed to meet the ambitious views of Cardinal Wolsey, his powerful minister. Wolsey's father-a substantial butcher in Ipswich—had educated his extraordinary son for the Church; and in due time the youth had become chaplain to the Treasurer of Calais, through whose influence he had come under the notice of the seventh Henry, by whom he had been employed as embassador to the Emperor Maximilian. On the accession of Henry VIII., Wolsey had become the young king's bosom friend, and gradually risen to be Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of York. Espousing the cause of the Emperor, from a belief that he might, by that course, reach the papal throne, he invited Charles to England; and the latter's arrival

was suddenly announced on the eve of Henry's expedition to Calais. Charles, after being magnificently entertained, departed with a conviction that he had won Henry from the cause of his rival; and Henry sailed to keep his appointment with the King of France on "the Field of the Cloth of Gold." Nothing could exceed the splendor of the festivities on the occasion, but no sooner were they at an end than Henry went to visit the Emperor at Gravelines; and the latter, returning with the English King to Calais, was overjoyed at the good fortune of his aunt. Queen Catherine, in being the spouse of so magnificent a prince.

Ere long, however, Henry began to give utterance to doubts in regard to the validity of his marriage with Catherine, from the awkward fact of her having formerly been the wife of his brother Arthur. Accordingly, he solicited the Pope for a divorce; but being apprehensive of either mortally offending Henry by a refusal and the Emperor by compliance, his Holiness sought refuge in delay. All artifices were vain; for Henry, falling violently in love with Lord Rochford's daughter, Anne Boleyn, who had been educated at the French court, and impatient to make her queen, took the law into his own hands, disgraced Wolsey, and caused Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, to annul his former marriage. The Pope, enraged at this step, issued a bull condemnatory of Cranmer's proceedings, but this interference was met with a vigor and attended with consequences hardly anticipated.

The doctrines taught by Wicliffe, and the translation of Scripture into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of Englishmen for that revolution in religious opinions which was now to be aecomplished. Under a system of persecution, indeed, the Lollards, or professed followers of Wieliffe, were few; and Henry VIII. was not of their number. On the contrary, he had displayed his intellectual prowess by writing "A Defense of the Seven Sacraments," in answer to Luther's treatise, "The Babylonish Captivity." The work had been dedicated to the Pope, who gratefully conferred on its royal author the title of "Defender of the Faith." Nevertheless, he now set the papal power at defiance, and proclaimed himself Supreme Head of the Church of England. Parliament ratified this title: the Pope's jurisdiction within the realm was suppressed: monasteries were abolished; and their confiscated revenues granted to the King's favorite minions.

Meanwhile Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn was solemnized, but, capricious in his affections, he mercilessly sent her to the scaffold to make way for Jane Seymour, a maid of honor; on whose death, alarmed at the complimentary visits passing between the Emperor and the King of France, he courted the alliance of the Protestant powers of Germany by wedding Anne of Cleves. This lady was divorced in

a few months, and succeeded by Catherine Howard, whom he beheaded to marry Catherine Parr. She was fortunate enough to maintain her perilous eminence, and outlive the violent and blood-thirsty tyrant.

On the death of his nephew, the fifth James of Scotland, celebrated as the King of the Commons, Henry conceived hopes of peaceably uniting that country to England. With this view he proposed to affiance Edward, prince of Wales, his son by Jane Seymour, to Mary, the infant Queen of Scots. But the French faction, and the clergy, headed by Cardinal Beaton, an artful, ambitious, and luxurious prelate, were successful in defeating this scheme, and arraying the national prejudices against the English alliance. Henry endeavored to prevail on Arran, the governor, to send the infant Queen to England, and, to facilitate matters, offered to give the Princess Elizabeth in marriage to Arran's son, and make him King of Scotland beyond the Forth. But this project being frustrated by a liberal distribution of French gold among the Scottish nobles, and the Queen conveyed to France, Henry sent an army northward under the command of the Duke of Somerset, who pillaged Edinburgh and rode roughshod through a great part of Scotland. The dawn of the Reformation and the murder of Cardinal Beaton involved that unhappy country in fresh troubles, and at this momentous crisis, in 1547, Henry closed his eventful life.

Edward VI, was a mere child when he ascended the throne, having just completed his first decade of His maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset, was appointed Protector, and hastened to fulfill the intentions of the late King in regard to Scotland. The French had sent a fleet to the aid of their ancient allies, and reduced the castle of St. Andrews, within whose walls the party who had dispatched Beaton, since joined by the famous John Knox, had shut themselves up; when Somerset, entering Scotland, gained a complete victory at Pinkey, visited the capital, and then returning, encamped at the confluence of the Tweed and the Tevoit. Observing the strong and convenient situation of the ruinous eastle of Roxburgh, he had its walls roughly but rapidly rebuilt, and there received the submission of the chief men in the vicinage.

The reign of Edward, brief as it was, did not pass without popular commotions and civil broils. The reformed liturgy having been established by Parliament, and an act for uniformity in the use of it passed, the priests of the ancient faith instigated the people in Norfolk and Devonshire to oppose the innovations in religion; but the rebellions thus created were put down with a strong hand. Moreover, a plot against Somerset was formed by his brother, Lord Sudely, who was thereupon sent to the block. He found an avenger in Dudley, duke of Northumberland, who, after impeaching Somerset, had him beheaded, and

seized the reins of government. Northumberland's sway was not of long duration; for in the summer of 1553 the excellent and religious young King expired, and the ambitious duke, having been baffled in an attempt to place his daughter-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne, fell a victim to his own devouring ambition. Being totally ruined, and ultimately beheaded, his possessions reverted to the rightful owners.

Mary, the daughter of the eighth Henry and Catherine of Arragon, then became Queen of England. She had been severely treated during her brother's reign for breaking a law which prohibited Papists from worshiping after their own forms. But, on attempting to escape from the country, she was allowed to have mass performed privately; and she adhered, with peculiar bigotry, to the superstitions of Rome. On succeeding to the throne she restored the Romish religion. Preparatory to their being committed to the flames, Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, were lodged in the Tower. Cardinal Pole, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, became the Queen's principal advisers; fire and fagot were unscrupulously used; two hundred and eighty-eight persons were burnt at the stake; the blood of Protestants was shed like water; and eight hundred Englishmen betook themselves to a voluntary exile rather than do violence to their conscientious convictions. In the course of the year succeeding her succession, the Queen, having availed herself of the excuse afforded by Wyatt's rebellion to

put Lady Jane Grey and her husband to death, bestowed her blood-stained hand on the King of Spain, whose eruelty and bigotry were fully equal to her own. Though Philip treated Mary with neglect and aversion, she was extravagantly fond of him, even meditated making England a fief of Spain, and declared war against France for his gratification. After losing Calais, which the English had held for two centuries, and earning the epithet of "the Bloody," Mary died at the end of 1558, and was succeeded by a very different personage, her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn.

The able and politic princess who now ascended the English throne had during the preceding reign, been kept in confinement at Hatfield, and she had refrained from interfering in public affairs; but her first act was to restore the Protestant religion, in which she had been bred; and as the bulk of the nation still halted between two opinions, the example of the sovereign was quietly followed. She chose for her chief minister William Ceeil, lord Burghley, a cool, cautious, shrewd, and industrious man, who, having during former troubles saved his head by yielding willow-like to each storm, enjoyed Elizabeth's favor to the day of his death.

Scarcely had the crown been placed on Elizabeth's head, when Mary, queen of Scots, was persuaded by her relatives of the house of Guise to claim the English throne, as the legitimate heiress of the seventh

Henry. A pretext for this was found in the circumstance of Anne Boleyn's marriage not having been sanctioned by the Pope. The affection exhibited by the English people of all classes for their great Queen for a time prevented her enemies taking any public steps in the matter; but on the accession of Mary's husband to the throne of France, with the title of Francis II., the royal pair assumed the arms and style of King and Queen of England and Ireland; and Elizabeth retaliated by giving aid to the Scottish Protestants.

When Francis was cut off, in 1561, his beautiful widow having found her subsequent residence in France the reverse of pleasant, returned to her native land, where the Reformation, under the auspices of Knox, was in full and violent progress. Shortly afterward a correspondence, expressive of mutual esteem and affection, commenced between the roval ladies, and a personal interview was agreed to, but prevented by the breaking out of the religious wars in France, when Elizabeth openly espoused the cause of the Huguenots. Notwithstanding their continual jealousy, and much female emulation, harmony was maintained between the Queen and her fair cousin till the latter looked abroad for a husband. The Earl of Leicester, a man of courtly graces, and high in Elizabeth's favor, was proposed for that distinction; but circumstances were adverse, and Mary, in great haste, made an unlucky choice.

When the fourth James fell on Flodden Field, he left a widow in the person of Margaret, daughter of the seventh Henry, and she giving her hand to the Earl of Angus, became mother of a daughter, who was espoused by the Earl of Lennox, an expatriated Scottish nobleman. Lord Damley, the son of Lennox, was thus nearest male heir to the victor of Bosworth, and by many thought to have a strong claim to the English crown. Mary, forming the resolution of marrving the young lord, Lennox, after an exile of twenty years, was invited home, and Darnley, with some difficulty, obtained leave to accompany him. The youth was twenty, very tall, and wonderfully handsome; Mary's amorous heart was immediately captivated; their nuptials were forthwith celebrated; and from this point Mary's career tended toward its weful catastrophe. Rizzio, an Italian favorite, was seized in her presence, and stabbed at the door of her chamber: Darnley, who had been the principal actor in that strange scene, was a few months after the birth of her son mysteriously murdered; and the Earl of Bothwell, "a man sold to all wickedness," and suspected of having been guilty of that foul crime, became her third husband

Then there arose a loud clamor; and the Scottish barons, being, or pretending to be, incensed at their sovereign for wedding a man so infamous, combined to dissolve the marriage. Bothwell escaped beyond seas, and dragged out his existence in Denmark. Mary surrendered, and, while a prisoner in Lochleven Castle, was compelled to resign the crown to her son, who began to reign as James VI. Her illegitimate brother, the Earl of Moray, was declared Regent during his nephew's minority, and in that capacity displayed consummate ability and vigor. But Mary's charms having made a deep impression on the heart of her keeper's brother, she contrived to escape, and was soon at the head of a force so formidable, that the friends of the Regent advised him not to hazard a battle. Moray wisely deciding otherwise, so effectually routed the insurgent army at Langside, that the hapless princess, flying precipitately into England, suppliantly craved protection from the woman whose legitimacy she had denied, whose arms she had assumed, and whose crown she had claimed.

Elizabeth had now a golden opportunity of showing her magnanimity, by acting toward her erring kinswoman with the kindness and consideration due to the fallen; but, unhappily, her disposition was imperious and unforgiving. Mary had taken shelter in the castle of Carlisle, and the Queen professed her readiness to afford proper aid, provided the fugitive could clear herself of the imputed crimes, one of which was no less atrocious than participation in the murder of Darnley. A conference being appointed, the Regent Moray came from Scotland; but the proceedings were suddenly cut short, and the dethroned Queen meantime succeeded in engaging the affections of the Duke of Norfolk, who,

though a Protestant, was considered by her adherents as a most eligible match. The parties most nearly concerned were, it appears, favorable to the scheme, which was pursued with much ardor by the friends of both; but no sooner was it revealed to Elizabeth than she manifested the utmost displeasure, and repreached the enamored Duke so fiercely, that he retired from her court without leave. While on the road to Windsor he was taken into custody, and after a severe examination, marched off to the Tower.

At this time, the great northern earls, Northumberland and Westmoreland, raised the standard of rebellion. Both were Catholies, had large estates, and spent their incomes in supporting a system of hospitality which rendered them popular, and both had so little ready money that they were described as "bankrupt earls." Northumberland, who had recently felt injured by a rich mine of copper on his territory being adjudged as the property of the crown, in the middle of October entered Durham, displaying a banner on which was a cross with the five wounds of Christ. The bells were rung backward; the country was ronsed; the Bible and Common Prayer-book were publicly torn in pieces; and mass was openly performed. They proclaimed to some that, in common with the English nobles, they were resolved to restore the ancient religion, and liberate the Queen of Scots; and they hinted to others that they had taken up arms to prevent upstarts from trampling down the old

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patricians of the land. At first, they mustered seventeen thousand followers, two thousand of whom were tall horsemen, well armed and accoutred. But the Catholies in other counties not rising, the ardor of the insurgents soon cooled, and their numbers so diminished, that when Sussex, the Queen's lieutenant, took the field, they confusedly dispersed. Many of them were put to death by martial law; Westmoreland, flying into Scotland, took refuge among the Scots and Kers, and afterward escaped to Flanders. Northumberland, after being stripped and maltreated by some borderers, reached the abode of Hector of Harelaw, one of the Armstrong clan, where he believed himself safe, his host being under obligations to him, and engaged upon his honor to be true. Nevertheless, Hector treacherously delivered the unfortunate Earl into the hands of Moray, by whom he was sent to the castle of Lochleven, and ultimately executed at York. But we are assured that from that day Hector, who had formerly been rich and prosperous, fell into poverty; and he became so degraded in the eyes of his neighbors, that "to take Hector's cloak" passed into a proverb, as indicative of one who betrayed his confiding guest.

Next year Moray perished by the hand of an assassin named Hamilton, and Elizabeth was deeply grieved at the untimely end of a friend so stout and true. He had shortly before been deserted by two of his principal adherents—Maitland of Ledington, a

crafty politician, and Kirkaldy of Grange, the first soldier in Scotland; and the kingdom relapsed into anarchical confusion.

Meanwhile Norfolk had regained his liberty, and solemnly promised to abandon his matrimonial project. But Mary, entering into a secret correspondence with the Duke of Alva, who was zealously attached to her eause, as were also the Pope and the Kings of France and Spain, the infatuated nobleman was drawn into fresh plots, brought to trial, condemned, and beheaded. Soon after, the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew, by proving the extremities to which Papists were prepared to go, shocked and confounded all England, and exercised a baneful influence on the affairs of the captive Queen. Elizabeth was, more distinctly than ever, recognized throughout Europe as the bulwark of the Protestant faith; her life became doubly important in the eyes of her subjects; and, in accordance with the precepts of the Holy League, dark plots were formed for her destruction. To defeat these, multitudes of her people of all ranks formed associations for the defense of her person, and Parliament passed new and severe laws against conspirators. Mary, having entered into the ambitious views of the house of Guise, whose members were furious at the prospect of Henry of Navarre mounting the French throne, was subjected to a closer and more rigorous imprisonment. At length she rushed headlong on her fate. In 1586, Anthony Babington, a deluded . gentleman of Derbyshire, being discovered in a conspiracy against the life of Elizabeth, confessed that he had imparted his designs to Mary, and that she had expressed her approval. Some letters, which had been written by the unfortunate woman, but intercepted by the vigilance of Walsingham, were, by her secretaries, sworn to be genuine. Commissioners were thereupon sent to the place of her confinement. She appeared before them with reluctance, asserting her royal prerogative, but was condemned as privy to the plot against the Queen's life. The Kings of Scotland and France interfered to prevent the sentence being executed, but their remonstrances were unavailing.

On the 7th of February, 1587, a scaffold three feet in height, and covered with black cloth, was erected in the hall of Fotheringay Castle; and there the unhappy Queen, kneeling on a cushion, laid on the block her head, which, after three strokes, was severed from the body.

She met her melancholy fate with a dignity and resignation worthy of her rank, and was interred with much pomp in the cathedral of Peterborough.

When a rumor of this event reached Holyrood, James, who was mounting his steed, refused to credit the possibility of its being true, and rode off to hunt the deer at Calder; but two days later he was informed that Sir Robert Carey was on his way from the court of England to explain and apologize for the



QUEEN ELIZABETH.



transaction. The King sent two of his council to meet the embassador on the Border, and a letter from Elizabeth was delivered, wherein she expressed her regret at what had occurred, and stated that it was contrary to her wishes. James was fain to discourage all aspirations on the part of his subjects after that revenge, for which several of them panted; and he afterward gave evidence of his desire for friendship with his powerful neighbor by offers of active aid against the power of Spain, which was particularly alarming.

In 1585 Elizabeth had entered into a league with the Protestant princes and states on the Continent, and sent troops under the command of Leicester, to assist the United Provinces, then struggling against Philip; and Sir Francis Drake had taken some Spanish settlements in America. The Most Catholic King, in revenge, during 1588, fitted out what he called the Invincible Armada, consisting of a hundred and fifty ships of war, for the invasion and conquest of England; and Elizabeth exhibited high spirit and splendid courage. She assembled an army at Tilbury, mounted her horse, rode through the ranks, and by her patriotic speeches inspired her militia with extraordinary enthusiasm. However, Lord Howard of Effingham, the Admiral of England, attacked the Spanish squadron, and destroyed a great number of. the ships. A storm completed the discomfiture, and hardly more than one-third of the shattered armament returned to Spain.

In the following year Henry of Navarre ascended the throne of France, and it became Elizabeth's principal object to support him in the difficulties which, as a Huguenot, he had to encounter. Her timely and judicious aid enabled him to gain a temporary ascendency, and in the battle of Ivry he destroyed the power of the League. The illustrious Queen was somewhat annoyed when her ally abjured the doctrines of Protestantism, but they nevertheless maintained a close union against their common enemy Philip, whose heart's desire was to humble the English Queen and make a conquest of her realm. With this delusive hope, the gloomy tyrant, in 1596, prepared a second armada. Elizabeth armed her subjects to guard the coasts, and fitted out two fleets; one to defend the British seas, and the other, under Drake and Hawkins, to attack the Spanish settlements in America. In this expedition, Drake, long the scourge of Spain, died. About the same time, the young Earl of Essex and Lord Howard, accompanied by Sir Walter Raleigh and other warriors, undertook an expedition against Cadiz, which was taken and sacked; while the winds scattered a Spanish fleet bound for Ireland to support Tyrone's rebellion. To suppress this, the wealthy, accomplished, and aspiring Essex, who had succeeded Leicester in the Queen's good graces, was sent across the Channel as lieutenant. The brave and dashing nobleman, whose exploits on the Continent had been of a most brilliant character, did not possess the qualities necessary for bringing a war with the native Celts to a satisfactory conclusion, and he completely failed in his object. Being recalled, he was summoned before the Council to answer for his conduct; and at length, rendered reckless by despair, he attempted the rash and dangerous enterprise of seizing Elizabeth's He was tried and convicted, along with his friend, Lord Southampton, whose memory is preserved and respected as the generous patron of William Shakspeare, the prince of poets and dramatists. Southampton's life was spared, and he subsequently regained his liberty: but Essex was executed, notwithstanding the estimation in which he was held by the multitude. Lord Mountjoy, his successor in Ireland, conducted the war with so much ability for three years, that Tyrone was forced to surrender, and, to terminate the strife, Elizabeth was prevailed on reluctantly to sign his pardon.

The great princess did not long survive these occurrences. As late as the autumn of 1602 she hunted, without regard to wind, weather, or evening dews, and even danced the galliard with the Duke of Nevers, with a grace and attitude which excited boundless admiration. But when dark November arrived she exhibited visible signs of decay, and being removed on a stormy day to Richmond, she there expired on the 23d March, 1603, in the seventieth year of her life, having previously nominated the King of Scots as successor to the crown which she had worn with

so much glory to herself and advantage to her subjects.

The body that had contained her great and impetuous soul, was interred with much magnificence in the beautiful chapel which her politic grandfather had founded at Westminster. Centuries have passed since the mortal remains of the popular Queen mingled with the kindred dust of those absolute Tudors, of whom she was by far the most illustrious; but still her lofty spirit and patriotic pride seem to guard the coast and rest upon the seas. Her memory is venerated by Englishmen of each succeeding generation; and, while thinking of her dauntless bearing, they learn, in seasons of darkness and peril, to hurl defiance at the enemies of their country and their religion.

CHAPTER VI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

HARDLY had Queen Elizabeth breathed her last, when Sir Robert Carey, warden of the Middle Marches, leapt into his saddle at Richmond, and rode northward to convey the news to her successor; and soon after Carey's arrival at Holyrood, messengers from the Council appeared to request James to repair to England without delay. Doubtless, the King of Scots had no objection to escape from the scenes associated in his memory with the Raid of Ruthven and the Gowrie Conspiracy, to a fairer and wealthier realm. On an April morning he set forth with a retinue of five hundred horsemen, and entering England through the gates of Berwick, proceeded to the metropolis by such easy stages, that a whole month was consumed on the journey. His personal appearance was not such as to attract popular admiration. He had goggle eyes, a tongue too large for his mouth, and legs too thin for his body. His dress was slovenly, his bearing ungainly, and his speech "in the full dialect of his nation." Yet he could boast of being received by the English with joy, and of coming as in a hunting party. On the 25th of July, 1603, he was crowned at Westminster, and took occasion to confer knighthood on three hundred gentlemen, among whom was the immortal Francis Bacon, "the wisest, brightest, meanest, of mankind."

During the first year of the reign of James, plots were formed for placing Lady Arabella Stuart on the throne. Though innocent, the unfortunate lady was cast into prison, where she remained till her death. Sir Walter Raleigh, warrior, courtier, orator, and man of letters, being implicated, was condemned and sent to the Tower. After an interval of fifteen years, on infringing the peace with Spain by attacking one of her settlements, he was beheaded on this sentence.

This affair was followed by the far darker and more terrible conspiracy known as the Gunpowder Plot. James had commenced his reign by restoring his mother's partisans to their titles and estates; but he afterward enforced the penal statutes with a rigor which caused the Catholics to mutter treason; and they found a daring leader in Robert Catesby, a gentleman of ancient blood and good estate. Catesby conceived the project of destroying at one swoop the King, Lords, and Commons of the realm, and communicated his views to Thomas Winter, who had fought in the Low Countries. Winter, going to the Continent, drew into the plot a fanatical soldier of fortune, named Guy Fawkes. These three being joined by Thomas Percy, of the house of Northumberland, as-

sembled at a lonely dwelling near St. Clement's Inn, and took a solemn oath of secreey and perseverance. Percy then hired a residence adjoining the Houses of Parliament, and they commenced cutting a hole through the wall of partition. The wall was discovered to be enormously thick, and the bearded conspirators finding the digging no easy matter, began to feel the influence of superstitious fears. One day they imagined that a bell was tolling deep in the earth beneath them, and sprinkled holy water to stop the sound; but, ere long, a noise of less doubtful reality over their heads made them start and pause, till Fawkes brought intelligence that it was caused by the removal of a stock of coals, which had been kept by a dealer in a vault under the House of Lords. The conspirators, deeming the vault precisely the place for their purpose, hired it from the coaldealer, and stowed therein thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, with large stones, bars of iron, and billets of wood. By May, 1605, every thing was in readiness for the work of destruction. Parliament was to meet on the 5th of November, and Guy Fawkes undertook to fire the mine with a slow match. It happened, however, that the number of conspirators had much increased; several of these had relatives among the destined victims; and Sir Francis Tresham expressed his anxiety to save Lord Monteagle.

Ten days before the appointed time, Monteagle was supping in his mansion at Hoxton, when a page placed

in his hand a letter, which a tall man, whose features were concealed by the darkness, had just delivered at the gate. The epistle, which was without date or signature, warned his Lordship that "God and man had concurred to punish the wickedness of the time," and that the "Parliament should receive a terrible blow, and yet not see who hurt them." Monteagle carried the letter to Secretary Cecil; a search being made, Fawkes was found standing in a corner with a dark lantern; and being afterward arrested, he was put to the torture. Catesby and Perey were killed while resisting the sheriff of Worcester; Tresham expired in prison; and Guy Fawkes, with Winter, and six others, suffered the death of traitors at St. Paul's Church-yard.

Polemics divided James's time with the bottle and field-sports, so that he cared little for the tournaments that had been revived by Henry VIII., and annually solemnized in the golden reign of Elizabeth. Yet he still continued to hold them, though without their former splendor; and at one of these a Scottish gentleman, named Carr, having broken his leg while tilting, the King indulged his hereditary tendency by making a favorite of the youth, who, after being unworthily elevated to the earldom of Somerset, was convicted of participation in a diabolical murder. James next attached himself to George Villiers, who figured as Duke of Buckingham, and exercised an influence to which he was in no respect entitled.

Henry, Prince of Wales, on whom the hopes of the nation fondly rested, died in 1612, at the age of eighteen, and his brother Charles becoming heir, Buckingham planned a journey to Spain to negotiate a match with the Infanta; but his folly and presumption frustrated the treaty on the eve of its conclusion. The Princess Elizabeth had previously been married to the Elector Palatine, and the latter being deprived of his electorate for accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire, Parliament, considering that he was at once their sovereign's son-inlaw and a Protestant prince, urged James to strike a blow in his behalf. But the royal pupil of the learned Buchanan had not in his composition one particle of that chivalry which had led his ancestor to die, sword in hand, on the purple heath of Flodden. He did, indeed, in the last year of his reign, send an armament: but it was far too feeble to retrieve the Elector's shattered fortunes.

Though James was a man of learning and talent, he possessed none of that influence which arises from a thorough knowledge of the wants, wishes, and requirements of the English people. He cherished theories respecting the royal prerogative utterly unsuited to the age in which he lived, and which the ablest of the Tudors could not have put in practice. Nevertheless, his inglorious reign passed over in comparative quiet—it was the calm which precedes the storm. Having sown the wind, he departed this life on the

27th March, 1625, leaving his descendants to reap the whirlwind.

Charles I. was erowned at the age of twenty-five, having previously espoused Henrietta, daughter of Henry the Great of France. The Queen, as a Catholic, was extremely unpopular, and is thought to have exercised a disastrous influence in regard to the events which led to the King's tragic end. Charles was not disfigured by any of the peculiarities, mental or bodily, which had rendered his father an object of derision. Indeed, he was a prince of high personal accomplishments and exquisite artistic taste, blameless in private life, and eminently regal in demeanor. With few hereditary claims to popular respect, he inspired a large portion of the English nation with an attachment to his name, which induced them to face death, exile, poverty, and want in his cause, and run all risks for his posterity to the fourth generation.

James, however, had irritated the Puritans by his foolish talk, and Charles was fated to exasperate them into open resistance by attempting to administer affairs on a system antagonistic to the spirit of the age. He differed with his first Parliament on their refusal to vote adequate supplies for the war undertaken on behalf of the Elector. This was something so novel, that the high temper of the Parliament became a general subject of conversation, and it was dissolved. Letters under the privy seal were then issued for borrowing money from the subject; but the sum thus

raised being insufficient, a new Parliament was summoned, and not only proved refractory, but evinced its spirit of hostility to the crown by impeaching Buckingham, who had rashly undertaken the duties of minister. The King deemed this step so unwarrantable an interference that he imprisoned its chief anthors; and the contest, thus commenced, was fomented by various causes.

An expedition against Rochelle, undertaken by Buckingham, ended in disaster. Parliament compelled the King to consent to the Petition of Rights, which declared the illegality of raising taxes without the consent of the Legislature, of imprisoning save by legal process, and of billeting soldiers on the people. When Parliament assembled, in 1629, the weak and undeserving Buckingham had fallen by the dagger of Felton, an officer of some disbanded regiment; and Charles, perceiving the necessity of having ministers of a different stamp, allured from the ranks of the opposition Thomas Wentworth, subsequently created Earl of Strafford, a statesman distinguished by his energetic parts, brilliant eloquence, dauntless enterprise, and defiant conrage.

Meantime the King still persevered in levying tonnage, poundage, and ship-money; while the Star Chamber, without trial, imposed large fines for various offenses. But the spirit of liberty had grown too strong to be braved with impunity, and the Commons, bent on the redress of grievances, were in no accommodating frame of mind. They proceeded to consider the measures taken by the Government, and a resolution condemnatory of tonnage and poundage was proposed. Sir John Eliot, as the mover, was sent to prison, and the Parliament dissolved.

To fill the exchequer, Noy, the attorney-general, devised a scheme of raising supplies by levying shipmoney, and extending the impost to the inland counties; and John Hampden, an esquire of Bucks, refusing to pay the amount at which he was assessed, resolved to have a judicial decision as to the legality of the tax. Accordingly, in 1636, the case was tried in the Exchequer Chamber, before all the judges, and decided against Hampden; but so clear did the law appear in his favor, that the public discontent grew deeper and more earnest. Hampden, in disgust, resolved upon emigrating to Connecticut, in company with his kinsman, Oliver Cromwell. Their passages were quickly taken in a vessel lying in the Thames, and they had even gone on board, when an order of council prohibited the ship from sailing, and they were under the necessity of remaining in England.

Events now hastened to a crisis. Since the first James had left his native soil, Scotland, though nominally ranking as an independent state, had virtually been a subject province, and the ancient barons, whose progenitors had startled Robert Bruce with the exclamation that their swords were their charters, felt deep resentment at the neglect which they suffered.

and at the insignificance into which they were sinking. The impolitic attempt which the King, by the advice of Archbishop Laud, made to introduce the Anglican liturgy into their churches, enraged the Presbyterians, and the occasion was deemed favorable for the vindication of Scottish rights, under the color of religion. A bond, termed the National Covenant, was subscribed by persons of all ranks; and an army being mustered, was placed under the command of Alexander Leslie, an experienced soldier of fortune. Charles, in the spring of 1639, levied a force, and marched northward to suppress this rising; but terms of pacification being agreed to, he returned. However, the Scottish Covenanters refusing to disarm, and the King not having the means of reassembling his force, in 1640, after an interval of eleven years, convoked a Parliament, which, on refusing the supplies demanded, was imprudently dissolved by the King in person, with an indignant speech.

It was now openly said that matters must be worse before they could be better. Leslie again crossed the border, and the King advanced to meet him; but at Newburn the royal army fled before the Scottish invaders, who occupied the northern counties. Charles now retreated to York, where the Great Council of Peers was held; and, no other course remaining open, it was resolved to summon a Parliament, which met in November, 1640, and went to work in a fierce and uncompromising mood. A bill for the abolition of

tonnage and poundage was forthwith passed; monopolies of every kind were terminated; the Star Chamber, the High Commission Court, the Forest Court, and the Council of York, were abolished. Laud and Strafford were impeached and imprisoned. Laud was allowed to linger in a dungeon previous to execution, but Strafford was too formidable a foe to escape swift destruction; and as a trial by his peers would have resulted in acquittal, his death was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the unhappy King, in an evil hour, gave a reluctant assent. The victim met his fate with a proud courage and calm dignity, which have elicited involuntary admiration from those who most strongly reprobate the policy he pursued.

Parliament having passed a law declaring that it could not be prorogued or dissolved but by its own decree, adjourned in September, 1641; and the King paid a conciliatory visit to Scotland, and created Leslie Earl of Leven. While there—indeed, it is said, while playing the national game of golf on the Links of Leith—a letter was put into his hands, stating that the Irish, freed from the iron rule of Strafford, formerly Lord-lieutenant, had broken into a sanguinary rebellion, and attempted, in a single day, to massacre every Protestant in their island. To suppress the rebellion, Charles consigned full powers to Parliament, and these were afterward interpreted into a transference of the military authority of the crown.

The Long Parliament, during its first session, acted

with unanimity; but, after the legislative changes which it had brought about, differences of opinion arose among its leading members. On meeting after the recess, it became evident that there existed a large party headed by Falkland and Hyde, who not only considered that matters had gone far enough, but would hardly have inscribed on their banners the device of Hampden, Nulla vestigia retrorsum. The followers of Hampden, however, were more untractable than ever; and that address to the throne, known as the Grand Remonstrance, was moved and carried, after a long and stormy debate. Indeed, public opinion was inclining to the King's side, when he sent the Attorney-general to impeach of high-treason Hampden, Pym, and three other senators, at the bar of the House of Lords. The Commons, however, refused to surrender their members, and the King resolved upon a forcible arrest.

On the afternoon of the 4th of January, 1642, the House of Commons had assembled, when intelligence was brought that the King, with an armed force of several hundreds, was advancing toward Westminster Hall. The five members had hardly escaped when His Majesty knocked at the door, and entering with his nephew, the Prince Palatine, looked around, and then took possession of the chair. The Speaker fell on his knees, the mace was removed, and the members taking off their hats stood up. The King then interrogated the Speaker, who answered, that he was

the organ of the House, and had neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak, save at their request. After addressing to the Commons a speech, in which he expressed his respect for the laws of the realm and the privileges of Parliament, the King retired, amid cries of "Privilege!" and returned to Whitehall.

The five members took refuge in the city of London, whose inhabitants were devoted to their cause and furious at the attempt to seize their persons. Charles, besides being baffled of his prey, lost much of his reviving influence by this fatal error. He fled from Whitehall, and, there remaining no other appeal save to the God of battles, set up the royal standard at Nottingham. His nephews, Rupert and Maurice, younger sons of the unfortunate Queen of Bohemia, arriving to tender their services, were appointed to commands; the King's friends, or Cavaliers, were composed chiefly of the landed gentry and the church; and the Parliament was supported by the city of London, the large towns, and a portion of the yeomanry. Prince Rupert commanded the royal troops, and the Earl of Essex was at the head of the Parliamentary forces. Blood was first shed at Edgehill, in October, 1642, and victory fell to the Royalists, who took Barnsbury, and entered Oxford in triumph. For the first year the Cavaliers had the advantage, and the fall of Hampden at Chalgrove, while leading a charge against Rupert's fiery cavalry, deprived the Parliament of their ablest leader; but the tide of fortune soon turned. On the 2d of July, 1644, Rupert, having compelled the Parliamentary generals to raise the siege of York, gave them battle on Marston Moor, and was successful in driving Essex and Manchester from the field; but Cromwell and David Leslie redeemed the disaster, changed Rupert's success into a rout, and obtained possession of York.

At this period, the Marquis of Montrose, reaching the Highlands in disguise, gathered an army, and inspired the Cavaliers with hope by making himself master of all Scotland, till he was defeated by David Leslie at Philiphaugh. Meanwhile, on the 14th June, 1465, the Cavaliers and Roundheads met at Naseby, near Northampton; and Rupert, making a furious onslaught, chased the left wing of the Parliamentary forces from the field: but while he was eager in the pursuit the Royalists had the worst of the engagement, and the King, escaping, ultimately delivered himself to the Scots, who, for a sum of money, gave him up to the Parliamentary Commissioners. Charles was then lodged in the Palace of Hampton Court; but, dreading foul play, fled to the Isle of Wight, and was imprisoned in Carisbrooke Castle, while the chief power fell into the hands of Cromwell, who surrounded the House of Commons with soldiers, and turned the Presbyterian majority out of doors.

A Court of Justice was then appointed to judge the King, and he was brought to a trial which ended in his condemnation. On the 30th of January, 1649,

the sentence of death was executed in front of Whitehall, in the presence of a thronging multitude. The King, in that hour of agony, bore himself with heroic fortitude, regal dignity, martyr-like resignation, and Christian hope. A man in a mask acted as executioner; and another similarly disguised, holding up the head streaming with blood, cried aloud, "This is the head of a traitor!"

Shocked as the Cavaliers of England were, they remained inactive. The Irish rushed into rebellion; but Cromwell, proceeding thither, put them down with his red right hand, and then repaired to the North. The gallant Montrose, while at Brussels, had received intelligence of the King's execution, and having joined the heir of the beheaded monarch at the Hague, he planned a descent on Scotland, and landed in Caithness, displaying a black banner, on which was the bloody head of Charles, and the inscription, "Judge and avenge my cause, O Lord!" However, he was defeated on the river Kyle, taken prisoner, and hanged at Edinburgh on a gallows thirty feet high.

Scarcely had his head been set on the Tolbooth, when Charles II., having been invited by Scottish commissioners, arrived, was proclaimed King at Edinburgh Cross, and solemnly crowned at Scone. But his motley supporters having been routed by Cromwell at Dunbar, the young Charles, entering England, was proclaimed King of Great Britain at the head of

his army. On arriving at Worcester, he was joined by the Earl of Derby; but Cromwell following, defeated them with great havoe. The King, though he fought with gallant bravery, was fain to seek safety in flight. After personating a wood-cutter, quartering in a barn, and concealing himself among the branches of an oak-tree, he succeeded, under various disguises, in baffling his pursuers and reaching the soil of France in safety.

Cromwell returned in triumph to London, and the erown might have been his, but for the dislike with which the army regarded the name of King. Under these circumstances he resumed his seat in the House of Commons; but finding that body hostile to his ambitious views, he at length, in April 1653, appeared with his officers and a detachment of soldiers. The Speaker was pulled from his chair; the mace, described by the Captain-general as "that bauble," was taken away; the members were driven from the House; and the doors were locked on the Long Parliament.

Cromwell, having now the game in his own hands, summoned a representative council, consisting of a hundred and thirty-nine persons, which, from one of its conspicuous members, was nicknamed "Barebones' Parliament;" and, after an existence of five months, was dissolved by its own vote. This occurrence rendered the construction of some form of government necessary, and the Captain-general exerted his mighty

energies to restore the old institutions of the country under new names. Cromwell was nominated Lord Protector, girt with the sword of state, and invested with sovereign power; and he then formed a new House of Commons, extending the elective privilege, disfranchising small boroughs, increasing the number of county members, and giving representatives to the most considerable towns. He also endeavored to call into existence a House of Lords, but was not successful in this effort. The seats offered to the ancient nobility were disdainfully rejected; and the Lower House declined to acknowledge, as peers of the realm, the adventurers who were suddenly metamorphosed into a privileged class. Cromwell, unwilling to be trifled with, suddenly appeared in the Lower House, and dissolved the assembly in a short, severe speech.

The terrible Lord Protector now ruled alone, but with an ability seldom surpassed. Every attempt at insurrection was put down with the arm of military power. The Cavaliers, a tenth part of whose revenues had been confiscated, though as loyal to the exiled King as ever, knew full well that it was vain to stir; and the Republicans, though as violently as ever opposed to an absolute government, were equally quiescent. The foreign policy of the great usurper was so vigorous, that England was both feared and respected abroad. Peace was dictated to Holland; Jamaica and Dunkirk were taken from Spain; and Admiral Blake made the English flag dreaded in the ocean.

Cromwell expired, in full possession of power, on the 3d September, 1658, and was succeeded by his eldest son Richard, who, after a brief tenure of authority, beat a retreat from his hazardous elevation, retired into private life, and lived in obscurity. On his resignation, the officers of the army, calling themselves a provisional government, assumed the direction of affairs, and much confusion was the consequence. Indeed the country was so alarmed, that Cavaliers and Roundheads, forgetting for a season their bitter controversy, formed an alliance, and became eager to recall the banished Stuarts.

The enormous power of the army rendered matters critical in the extreme, and care sat on every face, till General Monk, whom Cromwell had, nine years previously, left in command of the forces north of the Tweed, marched into England, and declared for a free Parliament, which was assembled. A satisfactory message was presented from Charles, who thereupon was once more proclaimed King; and on the 25th of May, 1660, he was received by the populace with boundless enthusiasm.

Charles II. was, indeed, in possession of an amount of popular favor which had been bestowed on few of his predecessors; and, with all his faults and failings,—his prodigality, indolence, and luxurious habits—he took care that the monarchy of the Restoration should endure for his lifetime. He made no pretensions to the kingeraft of which his grandfather believed him-

self so accomplished a master, but he knew that it was better to glide with the current than to die an exiled king.

In 1661 he espoused Catherine of Portugal, and received as her dower the fortress of Tangier, where were trained some of the best English soldiers, who subsequently fought in the wars with France. In 1664, a war against Holland was carried on at such an enormous expense, and attended with so little success, that a treaty of peace was concluded at Breda, in 1667. This disastrous termination, with the sale of Dunkirk, excited public clamor. Hyde, who, having shared the King's exile, had since been created Earl of Clarendon, and whose daughter was Duchess of York, being regarded as the cause, was on false pretenses disgraced and banished.

Scarcely was the peace with Holland concluded, when the ministers of Charles formed a triple alliance with that country and Sweden to curb the power of France, then the most formidable in Europe; but after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, Louis XIV. allured Charles to his interests. This was not unnatural, for during their long exile Charles and his brother, the Duke of York, had become infected with Popery, each after his own nature. Charles would not risk an open avowal; but James, having "drank off the whole chalice," declared himself a Catholic. This caused so serious an outery, than an Act was passed by Parliament, requiring a test from all persons in the service

of the state. The Duke, unable to take the oath, was deprived of his office of High Admiral. Nor did matters rest there: for Titus Oates, a deposed elergyman, pretending to have discovered a Popish plot for burning London, murdering the Protestants, and placing James on the throne, several persons, among whom was Lord Stafford, suffered death. The Protestant feeling of the country was aroused; a test was applied to exclude Papists from Parliament; and the Exclusion Bill, to prevent the Duke of York from succeeding to the crown, passed the Commons, but was defeated by the Peers. In the same year, 1678, the Habeas Corpus Act became law.

In 1683, a new conspiracy, known as the Rye-House Plot, from the place where it was formed, came to light; and for participating in it Lord Russell and Algernon Sydney were executed.

This detection strengthened the royal influence; the Duke of York was restored to his official position; and he was tacitly acknowledged as heir to the crown, to which he succeeded on the 6th of February, 1685, when Charles expired without a struggle, in the fifty-fourth year of his life.

James II., having addressed to the Privy Council a speech expressive of his intention to maintain the established government in church and state, was proclaimed King, and soon after solemnly crowned in Westminster Abbey.

Notwithstanding his fair promises, and the latitude

allowed him in publicly celebrating the Roman Catholic rites in his palace, James contemplated the insane project of subjugating England to the Church of Rome. His notorious hostility to the Habeas Corpus Act, regarded by all parties as the rampart of liberty, and to the Test Act, recognized as the rampart of religion, excited strong indignation in the breasts of many Cavaliers, who had signalized their loyalty by strenuous opposition to the Exclusion Bill.

At this period, weary of exile, the Scottish refugees, headed by the Earl of Argyle, landed in Scotland, and attempted a rebellion, which led to nothing more important than the execution of their leader. But a more serious invasion soon took place on the part of the English exiles, under a man who enjoyed an extraordinary measure of undeserved popularity.

James Crofts, duke of Monmouth, was reputed to be a natural son of the second Charles, and had been treated as such by that facile and good-natured monarch, who had united him to the rich heiress, in whom terminated the line of the old barons of Buccleuch, on whose name Sir Walter Scott has conferred so wide a celebrity. Monmouth had fought so well in the Continental wars, and won so much applause, that the crown seemed within his reach; but on the discovery of the Rye-House plot, after concealing himself for some time in England, he repaired to the Hague, where he was hospitably entertained by the Princess of Orange, till the accession of her vindictive

father rendered it impolitic to protect the exile longer. Monmouth had then retired to Brussels, but was prevailed on by the banished English to leave his retreat, and sailing from Amsterdam, he landed at Lynn, in Dorsetshire, with no more than a hundred followers. The inhabitants were opposed to the court, and Monmouth, having issued a declaration, accusing James of various crimes, and asserting his own legitimacy, was joined by six thousand of the peasantry; and, some days later, he was vain and foolish enough to assume the title of King. Having met with a cordial reception at Taunton, King Monmouth, encamping at Bridgewater, took up his residence in its eastle; but his progress was ere long interrupted, for on every side the provincial magnates were mustering the militia; and the news of his landing having reached London, regular troops, under the command of Lord Feversham, arrived at Sedgemoor. Monmouth led his forces to an attack in the darkness of night; but the genius of Lord Churchill, who was second in command, speedily prevailed, and the ill-starred impostor, flying in terror from the scene of action, was captured while crouching in a ditch. He implored the gloomy tyrant's merey, after a fashion sufficiently abject to justify doubts as to the royalty of his parentage, but was nevertheless beheaded on Tower Hill.

Soon after the suppression of the rebellion, Jefferies, who, from the son of a small proprietor in Wales, had arrived at the dignity of Chief Justice of En-

gland, was sent westward to try the unfortunate beings who had taken part in the rebellion. Jefferies hanged several hundreds, and by his proceedings earned a most unenviable celebrity. For his sanguinary services he was promoted to the woolsack, and created Earl of Flint.

The power of James was now at its height; but he was surrounded by a small knot of Roman Catholics, who urged him on his desperate course. With their advice, and under the inspiration of Petre, a Jesuit, he rushed headlong to destruction. Indeed, his policy was utterly at variance with the feelings of those to whom he looked for support. He expressed a determination of being no longer fettered by the Test Act, and exhibited a resolution to have a standing army, officered by Papists. He restored the Court of High Commission, and audaciously deprived many Protestants of their offices to make way for those of his own faith.

At length, in 1688, his Declaration of Indulgence, by which he suspended all penal laws against Non-conformists, and abrogated all religious tests, was ordered to be read in churches. Seven bishops there-upon presented a petition, stating that they could not be parties to the publication. James denounced their document as a standard of rebellion, and the bishops, after being sent to the Tower, were tried in Westminster Hall, but on the 30th of June acquitted, amidst rapturous applause.

The infatuated King's cup was now full. He had played the game of tyranny, and been beaten. Even the old Cavaliers felt that he had forfeited their allegiance. An invitation was sent to William of Orange to come and deliver the nation from bigotry and tyranny. William, whose spouse was the eldest daughter of James, landed in November at Torbay, on the coast of Devon, with a banner, on which was inseribed "The Protestant Religion and the Liberties of England." At Exeter there came to him several Cavaliers of rank and distinction in the country, the most conspicuous being Sir Edward Seymour, chief of those high-spirited, untitled patricians, who, through good and evil report, had been, to three generations of the house of Stuart, "true as the dial to the snn." Seymour proposed that a bond should be signed by the assembled Englishmen, pledging themselves to act together, till the religion, laws, and liberties of the realm were secured, in a free parliament, against the perils of Popery and slavery.

Meantime James, incited by John Grahame of Claverhouse, whom he had recently created Viscount Dundee, was eager to try the event of a stricken field; but being abandoned by the Lord Churchill and others, such a course was soon out of his power. His second daughter, Anne, with her husband, George of Denmark, went over to the Prince. "God help me!" exclaimed James; "my own children have forsaken me!" After a fruitless negotiation to gain

time, the unhappy sovereign sent his Queen, Mary of Modena, and her infant son, to France, and learning that they had safely embarked at Gravesend, he attempted to follow. Much to the confusion of his sonin-law, he was intercepted, and brought back to London; but being sent to Rochester, he was afterward allowed to escape. James joined his Queen at St. Germains, where they were most munificently received and entertained by the French monarch.

Jefferies, who had been the convenient instrument of James's tyranny, was less fortunate in the day of reckoning. In attempting to escape he assumed the garb of a sailor, and secured a berth in a trader bound for the Continent. His love of liquor was so much more potent than his dread of danger, that he insisted on being put ashore in the morning before sailing, to indulge in a refreshing draught of the ale of the Red Cow at Wapping, where he was recognized by an attorney, whom he had lately abused in the Court of Chancery. He was in such danger of being pulled to pieces by the populace, that he implored the Lord Mayor, before whom he was carried, to send him to the Tower, and there closed his disreputable career.

The throne being vacant by the abdication of the last Popish sovereign of England, a Convention Parliament was held. At first a proposal was made that Mary, as daughter of the banished King, should be invested with the cymbols of supreme authority, and that her Dutch consort should enact the part of Re-

gent. But William, laying aside for a few moments his sullen reserve, gave a distinct intimation that he should not remain within the four seas to occupy any secondary position; and he acquired the crown by what Lord Bolingbroke called the best of all titles, the free gift of a people whom he had delivered from impending destruction—from Popery and slavery.

William and Mary were crowned with all due honors on the 13th February, 1689; and though the revolution which placed them on the throne was of no violent character, its justice and necessity were not so universally acknowledged as to secure internal repose during their reign.

When the intelligence of William's success reached the Scottish metropolis, the members of government changed sides with marvelous haste, and the populace rising, attacked the mass-houses and sacked Holyrood; while in the western shires the peasantry were tempted to commit scandalous outrages. But Claverhouse, who had traversed the whole of England almost without escort, suddenly presented himself to the Lords of Convention, whom he gave to understand that he would rather crouch with the fox than own a usurper. After holding a private conference with the Duke of Gordon at the postern of the castle, attended by about fifty horsemen, he directed his course northward, and invoked the loyalty of the clans, with whom he was in the highest favor. General Mackay, an officer of consummate skill and great experience, was dispatched by the Government to encounter the Highland host, and came up with it at the pass of Killierankie. Mackay occupied a piece of meadow land, and opened a brisk cannonade; while the Gaelic warriors, who covered the heights, throwing off their plaids and short coats, on a given signal rushed downward in their shirts with so much impetuosity, that the victory was instantaneous. But, in the moment of triumph, Claverhouse received a mortal wound, and only survived to write a brief account of the battle. By a capitulation with the new Government, the regular troops who had served under him were conveyed to France, and distributed through various garrisons. They were subsequently formed into a regiment, and faced death bravely on many a foreign straud. Some left their bones to whiten fields of fight; others found a last resting-place in mouldering cloisters.

Notwithstanding the fall of Claverhouse, James did not despair. He landed with an army at Dublin, and was so enthusiastically received, that for a time there appeared some slight prospect of success. But William, taking his forces into Ireland, defeated his father-in-law on the banks of the Boyne, and James returned to the dominions of the French king. Thereupon a negotiation was entered into for disbanding the Jacobite forces north of the Forth, and a pardon proclaimed to all who should subscribe the oath of allegiance before a certain date. Notwithstanding this fair promise, the Macdonalds of Glencoe were

diabolically butchered one morning before daybreak by a company of the Campbells, placed in their houses for that purpose. This event, known as the Massacre of Glencoe, and the treachery he displayed in the Darien affair, have rendered the name of William of Orange odious to the Scottish nation.

Indeed that royal hero-for a hero and the champion of Protestantism he was, in spite of all his faults and failings-had little sympathy with the people over whom he ruled. His attention was, for the most part, occupied with attempts to curtail the power of France, and humble the pride of her grand monarch; and he chiefly valued his connection with England because it enabled him to raise such sums as his military enterprises rendered necessary. This led to the national debt, and to complaints, both loud and deep, that, without levying a tax on land, Government was in no condition to send a cock-boat to sea, or keep a sentinel at Whitehall gate. William's wars were not, from various causes, very successful; yet he maintained himself on the English throne, and compelled the King of France to promise that he should not be disturbed in its possession.

Nevertheless, when the deposed King died at St. Germains, in 1701, Louis caused his son, the Chevalier, to be proclaimed as James III., and thereby gave mortal offense to his austere, sullen, and reserved rival. William prepared to undertake another war; but before it had been actually declared he was killed by

a fall of his horse over a molehill, and his Queen, having died several years previously without issue, her sister ascended the throne in 1702.

Queen Anne boasted of having a thoroughly English heart, and adopted Elizabeth's motto—Semper eadem. A treaty of union with Scotland was signed in 1706; while in conjunction with Holland and the Empire, England prosecuted war against the Bourbons. Marlborough and Prince Eugène commanded the allied army, and signally defeated the French at Blenheim and Ramilies. The success of the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James II., in some measure retrieved these disasters; but Marlborough was again victorious at Oudenarde and Malplaquet.

In 1710, however, that illustrious captain fell under the Queen's displeasure, and his friends were removed from office. Robert Harley became minister, and claiming descent through a female from the old De Veres, was raised to the peerage as Earl of Oxford; Henry St. John, the friend of Pope, was appointed Secretary of State, and subsequently created Viscount Bolingbroke; and, after multitudinous preliminaries, peace was formally established by the treaty signed at Utreeht in 1713.

From the autumn of that year the Queen's health, which had previously been precarious, declined daily; and in the winter she had so severe an attack, that there remained very faint hopes of recovery. She lingered, however, till the summer of 1714, when,

having a few days earlier deprived Oxford of the Treasurer's wand, she died of apoplexy on Sunday, the 1st of August. Her children had preceded her to the grave; and the crown, in accordance with the Act of Settlement, went to the Elector of Hanover, as son of the Princess Sophia, whose mother was the unfortunate Queen of Bohemia.

George I. was proclaimed King; and so perfect was the calm and submission throughout the land, that neither riot nor outrage occurred on the occasion. Indeed, there seemed every prospect of a reign as bloodless, in a domestic point of view, as that which had just terminated; but the severity exhibited toward the late Queen's ministers was by no means calculated to reconcile those who cherished any affection for the Stuart race.

Within four days after the Queen's funeral, an express arrived from Hanover with instructions to the Council of Regeney to remove Bolingbroke from his place as Secretary of State; and the doors of his office in the Cockpit were thereupon locked and sealed up. On his majesty's arrival at Greenwich, Oxford, who went to kiss his hand, was treated with marked contempt; there was an entire change of all persons in employment, and threats of impeachment were openly made by the new servants of the crown. The impolicy of this course was soon apparent; for on the 20th October, when the King's coronation took place with the accustomed pomp and circumstance, riots in

various eities and towns of England indicated, in a manner not to be misunderstood, that a dangerous spirit of disaffection was abroad.

At the opening of the year 1715 a proclamation was issued for a new election; reflections were freely made on the conduct of the expelled ministry; and the constituencies were invoked to return representatives who had stood firmly by the Protestant succession. It is worthy of remark, that for rising in his place, when Parliament assembled, to characterize the language employed in the proclamation as unprecedented and unwarrantable, Sir William Wyndham, member for the county of Somerset, who had figured successively as Master of the Buckhounds, Secretary at War, and Chancellor of the Exchequer, was, on the resolution of the House of Commons, severely reprimanded by the Speaker, after having narrowly escaped being sent to the Tower.

The management of the House was committed to Robert Walpole, who had for years taken a prominent part in public affairs. The son of a Norfolk squire, he had been educated at Eton and Cambridge, and given early proofs of high talent. Walpole had been originally destined for the Church, but on the death of an elder brother he took to the cultivation of the paternal estate of Houghton, sold cattle once a week at the neighboring fairs, and often, along with his worthy sire, indulged with extraordinary freedom in the bottle, and in a style of conversation peculiarly

offensive to the ears of the refined. At an early age he had been chosen member for Castle Rising, and raised himself to consideration and celebrity. During Oxford's tenure of power he had been imprisoned for malversation, and declared incapable of sitting in the existing Parliament; but his party treated him as a martyr, and he appeared in the new House of Commons with peculiar zeal for the Hanoverian dynasty, and with no very benevolent feelings toward those who had been his accusers. Under his guidance, the work was carried on with vigor; a reward of one hundred thousand pounds was voted for the head of the Pretender; and Oxford and Bolingbroke, with several of their colleagues, were impeached of high treason. Oxford, though his friends had urged him to flee to the Continent, refused to confirm by such a step the reports circulated to his disadvantage, awaited the event privately about London, and was conveyed, amidst the tumultuous and sympathetic cheers of the populace, to the Tower, and languished there till 1717. Bolingbroke pursued a different course. Though strongly suspected of having intrigued with the Chevalier, he betrayed no signs of fear, but took his part in the public business as a peer of the realm, and addressed the House of Lords with all his matchless eloquence. At length, seeing that he need expect no mercy, he appeared at Drury Lane Theatre, and having bespoke a play for the next evening, he left town in the disguise of a courier. So obnoxious was he to the

Hanoverian King, that Lord Peterborough, on account of having met him on the road between Calais and the French capital, was forbidden the court. Bolingbroke retired to Dauphiné; but, with the smart of a bill of attainder tingling in every vein, he allowed himself to be dragged into the Chevalier's service, and accepted the seals as a secretary of state.

Meantime, in England, popular discontent increased to such a degree, that if the heir of the Stuart kings had been a prince worthy of a great nation's confidence, he must have proved a formidable, most likely a successful, foe to the reigning dynasty. But the Chevalier was not a person of that description. His intellect was limited, and he had so inadequate a conception of the struggle in which he was about to embark, that he talked like a man who expected every moment to set sail for England or Scotland, without knowing which. Moreover, in his religious views he was so servilely submissive to the Church of Rome, that reasoning Catholies pronounced him far too much of a Papist. His bigotry blinded him so utterly to his own interest, that while his father passed for a saint, at whose tonib miracles were reported to be wrought, he would not have his royal sister described as "of blessed memory," and even declined to allow his grandfather to be styled a martyr. His whole education had rendered him unfit to reign.

The honest Jacobites, with little knowledge of the individual who aspired to sit on the throne and rule over the realms of the first Edward, prepared to take up arms in his behalf. The example was set by the Earl of Mar, who, after a vain attempt to curry favor with King George, embarked with a few followers in a collier at Gravescud, and landing in Fife, set up the Chevalier's standard in the autumn of 1715. Mar had deluded the people of Scotland into a high admiration of his patriotic spirit, and ere long found himself at the head of several thousand men. This excited so much alarm, that orders were dispatched to Edinburgh for the apprehension of suspected persons, in obedience to which several men of mark and likelihood were committed to the Castle.

Nor was enmity to the new Government confined to Scotland. The Chevalier was proclaimed in Cornwall, where the laboring populace were devoted to his cause; at Oxford his health was openly drunk; and a rising was anticipated throughout the western shires. Sir William Wyndham and five other senators were ordered to be arrested; but one of these, Thomas Forster, member for Northumberland, and a stanch Protestant, eluded pursuit, raised the Chevalier's standard in the north of England, and was supported by Lords Derwentwater and Widdrington. Crossing the Tweed, they were joined by several Scottish peers-Kenmure, Winton, and Carnwarth; after which they turned southward, the militia under Lords Lonsdale and Carlisle retiring precipitately. The insurgents entered Lancaster unopposed; from which place they

marched to Preston, a regiment of regular troops and a militia force giving way on their approach. They had now, however, got to the end of their line; for, being beset by Generals Wells and Carpenter, they surrendered on the same day which witnessed the drawn battle between Mar and Argyle at Sheriff' Muir.

When the Christmas of 1715 arrived, the grave had closed over the magnificent French monarch, who was the best friend the Chevalier possessed. The Jacobites, almost despairing of any thing resembling success, would, no doubt, have been glad to disband, and content themselves by such harmless manifestations of loyalty to the race they loved, not wisely but too well, as drinking the health of the King over the water-bottle, wearing oaken boughs on the anniversary of the Restoration, and white roses on the Chevalier's birthday. Hope had fled, when a small foreign ship, touching at Peterhead, put ashore the ill-fated heir of a long line of kings, attended by a confessor and a few friends. He passed through Aberdeen arrayed like a naval officer; and being forthwith joined by Mar, made a public entry into Dundee, accompanied by three hundred horsemen, loyal gentlemen and chiefs of ancient names, whom feelings of compassion and romantic honor had led to his side. Having remained for an hour in the market-place, the people thronging to pay him homage, the Chevalier repaired to Perth, in which neighborhood was the palace of Scone, where

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forty-eight Scottish kings had been crowned. He now issued several proclamations, which produced a momentary flash of enthusiasm; but the approach of Argyle, who had just been reinforced by six thousand Dutch soldiers, brought his conneil to their senses, and it was resolved that the enterprise should, without further delay, be abandoned. Accordingly they crossed the Tay, which was then covered with ice, and repaired to the town of Montrose, where the Chevalier left his adherents to shift for themselves. Having ordered his horses and guard to be drawn up in front of his quarters, he slipped out at the backdoor, and taking Mar with him, embarked on board a small vessel, which, cluding the vigilance of the Government ernisers, landed him safely at Gravelines. He afterward went to Avignon, having previously discharged Bolingbroke from his service by a note, whose "kingly laconic style" raised a smile of contempt on the intellectual countenance of the expatriated statesman.

Meanwhile the English Parliament assembled, introduced the Septennial Bill, and impeached the lords taken at Preston. Derwentwater and Kenmure expiated their offense on the scaffold. Widdrington and Carnwarth were respited, and eventually set at liberty. Winton, scorning the thought of asking mercy, quitted the Tower with the connivance of his keeper, and died long after at Rome. Forster escaping from Newgate before his trial, rode with hot haste to Rochford,

whence a vessel conveyed him to the coast of France. Nithsdale, on the evening before the day appointed for his execution, was visited by his mother, whom he strongly resembled in stature, features, and tone of voice. Disguising himself in the hat, deep black vail, and long mourning cloak of the noble matron, he passed the sentinels without exciting suspicion, and succeeded in making a hair-breadth escape beyond the King George had hitherto turned a deaf ear to the intercessions on Nithsdale's behalf; even the pathetic appeal of the young Countess, who had obtained an audience by stratagem, had proved ineffectual; but on the news of the unfortunate nobleman's escape being carried to him, his majesty pleasantly remarked, in accents remotely resembling broken English, that it was the best thing a man in such circumstances could have done.

The scene of blood and vengeance over, the King paid a visit to Hanover; and the Prince of Wales having in his absence, while acting as guardian of the realm, incurred his royal sire's displeasure, a bitter quarrel ensued. Next year war was declared against Spain, and the King soon after informed Parliament that an invasion from that country would be attempted in favor of the Pretender. The fleet sent was dispersed by a storm, a solitary ship reaching Scotland.

One of the most remarkable circumstances of this reign was the projection of the South Sea scheme,

which speedily involved the nation in ruinous speculation, and led to results so disastrous, that the partisans of the Chevalier, availing themselves of the turmoil, began to plot. Several of them were arrested on suspicion; and the bold, daring Bishop Atterbury, who had, on a former occasion, offered to proclaim James III. in full canonicals at the Royal Exchange, was exiled for life, and deprived of the company of British subjects residing abroad. About the same time Bolingbroke procured a free pardon and the security of his estate; but being most improperly excluded from his seat in Parliament, he betook himself to the rural quiet of Dawley, where he cultivated the friendship of Pope, read letters from Dean Swift while sitting among haveocks, and contributed to "The Craftsman" political papers distinguished by a felicitons and flowing diction, and characterized by a bitter enmity to Walpole.

In 1727 the King set out on a second visit to his German dominions, to which he was tenderly attached; but being attacked with paralysis by the way, his earthly existence terminated at Osnaburg on the 11th of June. The intelligence was, without delay, conveyed to Walpole, who repaired to Richmond and communicated it to the new King.

George II. was characterized by two weaknesses, which his advisers found extremely inconvenient—an unprincipled avarice, and an invincible predilection for his Continental possessions. Like his father, he

strove to pass for a man of spirit in spite of nature, and he indulged in grave improprieties under the silly idea that libertinism was a kingly quality. Though destitute of military skill, he was not without personal courage. He had served as a volunteer under Marlborough, charged bravely at the head of Hanoverian dragoons at Oudenarde, and on one occasion boasted, with his strong German accent, that though the house of Hanover might have produced as many fools as any other in Europe, it had never produced a single coward or poltroon. In affairs of state he was entirely under the influence of his queen, who perfectly comprehended her own position and the expediency of Walpole holding the reigns of power. That eminent minister was possessed of singular intelligence and prudence. His extraordinary vigilance baffled every Jacobite plot; and his love of peace gave England a long season of repose. Unfortunately for himself, he loved power so much that he would not endure a rival: rather than consent to any partition of influence, he successively drove Pulteney, Cartaret, Townshend, and Chesterfield, from the ministerial ranks, and thus ereated a formidable opposition distinguished by the appellation of "the Country Party." He experienced its hostility in 1732, on the introduction of his Excise Bill, which excited so violent a clamor that he was compelled to abandon the measure. Shortly after, Frederick, prince of Wales, being estranged from his father, threw his influence into the ranks of opposi-

tion; and Walpole was compelled, against his deliberate judgment, to enter into a war with Spain to retaliate the injuries sustained by the commerce of British subjects in South America. The war was at first popular. Vernon destroyed the fortifications of Porto Bello, and Anson distressed the enemy in the South Seas; but the failure of the expedition against Carthagena brought the ministry into disgrace, and increased the energy of their opponents. Indeed the latter began to take liberties not tolerated during the former reign. In 1717, when William Shippen, with his glove before his mouth, remarked in a low, rapid tone of voice, that "the King's speech seemed rather calculated for the meridian of Germany than of Great Britain, and that the first George was unacquainted with the laws and constitution of England," he was hurried off to the Tower; but in 1742, when William Pitt declaimed in a voice that swelled like an organ, and gestures equal to those of Garrick, against the annual visits of the second George to Hernhausen, and his perfidious partiality to the despicable Electorate, the old Duchess of Marlborough left him a handsome legacy, and the King was under the necessity of appointing him Paymaster of the Forces.

In 1741 Walpole was driven from power, and ereated Earl of Orford. He passed his four remaining years in retirement; amused himself with planting, took an interest in the paintings which his son collected, and was laid at rest in the parish church at

Houghton. A few months later happened the last daring and romantic attempt to wrest the British crown from the House of Hanover.

After Walpole's expulsion from power, and a brief ascendency enjoyed by the gifted Cartaret, the King fell into the hands of Henry Pelham and his brother, the Duke of Newcastle. In the year 1743, a body of British and Hanoverian troops were sent to the Continent to assist the Austrians against France, and they were successful in an engagement at Dettingen. On that occasion the King, being present, interfered so provokingly that Lord Stair resigned his post as commander. It was thereupon bestowed upon the King's second son, William, duke of Cumberland, who, having scarcely emerged from boyhood, and being deficient in experience, sustained a defeat at Fontenoy. However, he had soon an opportunity of retrieving his laurels in a different scene.

The hapless Chevalier, after flying from the land where his ancestors had exercised regal sway, was contracted to a Polish princess, who, while passing through the Tyrol on her way to Rome, was seized and confined for some time at Insprack. But, escaping in 1719, she made her way, disguised as a page, to Bologna, where she was soon joined by her husband. They had two sons: Charles Edward, whose romantic adventures bards and novelists have vied to celebrate, and Henry, known as Cardinal York, at whose death, in 1807, closed the male line

of Charles I. The elder resided generally at Rome till 1744, when he left that eity with the avowed intention of hunting a boar, but rode post-haste to Genoa. He continued his journey to Paris, where, after being amused by the French Government with vain promises of assistance, he resolved to throw himself on the loyalty of the Highland clans, embarked in a sixteen-gun frigate, and landed in the Isle of Ersica, assuming the character of a young Irish priest. The most inveterate Jacobites were decidedly averse to take part in an enterprise which appeared as rash and extravagant as any of those that have rendered the Knight of La Mancha immortal. But Cameron of Lochiel, having, much against his inclination, consented to share the Prince's fate, the latter, on an August morning, proceeded to Glenfinnan, where Lochiel brought several hundreds of his clan. The Marquis of Tullibardine then unfurled the Prince's standard; the fiery cross was sent about; the Highland army increased; and Charles Edward, after entering Perth and Dundee, took possession of Edinburgh, and established his court in the old regal halls of Holyrood.

George II. was at this time on his yearly visit to Hanover; but Sir John Cope, putting himself at the head of the royal forces, encountered the Highland army at Prestonpans, where he suffered a defeat so complete that he was forced to gallop ingloriously from the field, and take refuge within the walls of Berwick; while the Prince, having issued an address, marched into England by the western frontier, took possession of Carlisle, passed through Manchester, and arrived at Derby.

Apprehensions were now seriously entertained of a bare-legged Highland host placing a Popish prince on the throne of Great Britain; but at this critical moment the royal adventurer was providentially prevailed upon to retreat and conduct his dispirited followers into their own country, when he succeeded in occupying Glasgow and achieving a victory over General Hawley at Falkirk.

At length, in April 1746, the event was brought to a decisive issue. Charles Edward had fixed his head-quarters at Inverness, and the Duke of Cumberland encamped hard by. They met on the wide moor of Culloden, where Cumberland achieved a conclusive triumph, which he pursued with so much cruelty that his name was long justly execrated in the glens and mountains of the far north.

The Prince, seeing all was lost, fled, with a few attendants, from the bloody heath. After many wanderings, with the aid of Flora Macdonald—a brave Highland damsel—he made his escape to France, under circumstances almost miraculous. He is stated to have ventured on visiting England several times in after years, and even to have been present at the coronation of George III. His unfortunate adherents were cruelly dealt with. Balmerino and Kilmarnock

were executed in August, and Lovat in the following year. Even as late as 1753, a brother of the gallant Lochiel, having rashly ventured upon his native soil, was beheaded at Tyburn, with every accessory which revenge could suggest to render bloodshed unpopular.

Internal peace having been restored, the last years of George the Second's reign were replete with events grateful to the national pride. William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham, becoming War-minister, took means to redeem the humiliation which had been felt when Minorca was taken from the English, and Admiral Byng retired before the French flag; and he turned a contest thus disastrously begun into one of the most glorious ever entered upon. In the midst of it the King departed this life, and his eldest son having died in 1751, he was succeeded by his grandson.

George III., as a native of England, came to the throne in 1760, with advantages infinitely superior to those enjoyed by his immediate predecessors. The Jacobites had ceased to make their influence felt, and those whose abilities had lent weight to the party, Bolingbroke, Wyndham, and Shippen, had been long gathered to their fathers.

A peace with France and Spain was concluded by a ministry presided over by the Earl of Bute, whose sudden elevation raised a violent prejudice and loudlyexpressed elamor against Scotland, the country of which he was a native. He soon resigned; and his successor, George Grenville, passed the American Stamp Act, which caused such serious discontent in the Transatlantic possessions of the British crown that the colonists took up arms, and, under the auspices of Washington, commenced that struggle which, after involving England in hostilities with France, terminated in American independence being formally recognized in a treaty, by which England became more than ever absolute mistress of the sea.

A bill passed in 1780, for the relief of Roman Catholics, was productive in London and Southwark of the most daring tumults, encouraged by the weak and eccentric Lord George Gordon, who afterward became a proselyte to Judaism. The rioters, shouting the "No Popery" cry, did enormous mischief, and after burning the residence of the illustrious Lord Mansfield were suppressed by the military.

In 1783, William Pitt, second son of the great Earl of Chatham, became first Minister of the Crown at the early age of twenty-five, and devoted his energies to the negotiation of commercial treaties and the restoration of the national finances. In the course of his administration, Burke, one of the greatest of statesmen and orators, impeached Warren Hastings, in 1787, for misdemeanors in the government of India. Soon after the French Revolution breaking out, the house of Bourbon fell; and great was the fall thereof. Louis XVI. was brought to trial and beheaded; the French Convention declared war against England, and a long, arduous struggle was commenced

Encouraged by aid from France, the Irish, in 1798, raised a rebellion, which led to the legislative union, with much difficulty accomplished in 1800. Having effected this desirable object, Pitt retired for a while from the helm of affairs, leaving the Addington ministry to conclude a peace with France, which lasted little more than twelve months.

In May, 1804, Pitt again undertook the duties of Prime Minister of England, and Bonaparte was proclaimed Emperor of the French. Next year, Nelson, already renowned as the hero of the Nile, defeated the united fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar; the great admiral himself falling in the engagement, and Pitt only living to hear the news. Thereupon Fox came into office, and endeavored to negotiate peace with France; but the matter was broken off at his death, and Bonaparte declared the British Isles in a state of blockade.

For a time the French were signally successful. But in 1809, Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had already won celebrity in the East, at Copenhagen, and at Vimiera, was placed in command of the English army. Arriving at Lisbon, he passed the Douro, forced Soult to retreat across the mountains, and won the battles of Talavera and Busaco. In 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos were taken by storm; and in the same year the battle of Salamanca was fought, and Lord Wellington entered Madrid in triumph.

Next year, following Soult, he entered France, in-

vested Bayonne, and was victorious at Orthes and Toulouse. Paris capitulated, and Bonaparte being deposed was sent to Elba; while the Allied Sovereigns were entertained in England.

Escaping from Elba, Bonaparte took the field, and was finally defeated on the plains of Waterloo.

The old King, who had sustained an attack of derangement in 1788, was similarly afflicted in 1810, and the royal functions were intrusted to his son, George, prince of Wales, who thereupon became Prince Regent. His majesty survived till 1820. He expired on the 28th January, and his bones were interred amidst ancestral dust in the royal vault at Windsor.

George IV. had attained the age of fifty-eight, and earned a reputation, in many respects the reverse of enviable, before he was called upon to reign. He had, after a youthful career of exhausting dissipation and extravagant expenditure, consented to receive as his consort Caroline, daughter of the Duke of Brunswick. By that lady he had a daughter, the Princess Charlotte, who died before he came to the throne; and when the melancholy event occurred, the Princess of Wales left England. But on her husband's accession she returned, and insisted on being crowned; whereupon a Bill of Pains and Penalties against her majesty was presented to the House of Peers by the Earl of Liverpool, then at the head of the administration. After being read a second time it was aban-

doned, and London was, in consequence, illuminated for two nights; but ere long the unhappy Queen had gone where the weary are at rest.

George IV. manifested no inclination to emulate his sire's virtues. His chief ambition was to be the finest gentleman of Europe, and he succeeded to some extent in this aspiration. Byron remarked, there was fascination in his very bow; and Sir Walter Scott observed, that when presiding at the coronation banquet, amidst the long line of nobles, he looked every inch a king. Such being the ease, there was sound policy in commencing his reign by visiting different parts of his dominions; and accordingly, in the autumn of 1821, he went to Ireland, where he was received with every appearance of loyal enthusiasm. He next proceeded to Hanover, and subsequently to Edinburgh, where he received such a flattering welcome from his Scottish subjects, that he emphatically pronounced them a nation of gentlemen.

In 1827, Lord Liverpool's infirmities having incapacitated him for longer performing the functions of Premier, George Canning, the most brilliant orator of his day, was worthily elevated to power; but his tenure of office was brief, being cut off in the zenith of his reputation, and in full possession of popularity. In the same year was fought the battle of Navarino, in which the Turkish and Egyptian fleets were almost destroyed by the British, French, and Russians, under Admiral Codrington.

At the beginning of 1828, the necessity for a strong hand holding the reins of government being evident, the Duke of Wellington assumed the post of Prime Minister, and during his administration was carried through Parliament the measure for the Emancipation of Roman Catholics, debated for a quarter of a century, and to which his majesty gave a hesitating assent.

At the opening of 1830 the King's health broke down; his case was soon perceived to be hopeless; and he expired at Windsor on the 26th June.

His brother, the Duke of Clarence, who had been educated to the naval profession and seen service, became King, with the title of William IV., and was crowned in September, 1831.

The Duke of Wellington, less successful in the cabinet than the field, had already divested himself of the ministerial functions. His successor was Earl Grey, who had sat in the House of Commons as early as 1785, attached himself to Fox, incurred a castigation from Pitt, appeared as a manager at the memorable trial of Hastings, and succeeded his great master in 1806, as Secretary for Foreign Affairs. The ministry of the veteran statesman carried through Parliament the Reform Bill—a measure, which, whatever its merits or demerits, was one passed with the popular sanction. The slave-trade having been abolished in 1806, an act was now passed for the abolition of slavery in the British Colonies.

King William died on the 20th June, 1837, at the age of seventy-two, and was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria, who was crowned on the 28th June, 1838, within that venerable abbey, which has so often witnessed the august ceremony as to appear almost a part of the British Constitution.

Since that date, startling and violent changes have occurred in Continental countries. Dynasties have been uprooted, and states convulsed. Dethroned kings have fled from their exasperated subjects, and rebel subjects from their infuriated rulers, to take safety on our peaceful shores. But in England, Order and Freedom have walked hand-in-hand; her immemorial institutions—cauticusly reformed to meet the requirements of each succeeding generation—have maintained their ancient reputation, and her people—proud, prudent, and pacific, yet prompt to spend both blood and treasure in a just and rightcous cause—have not forgotten "their precedence of teaching the nations how to live."

CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.

About the opening of the fifth century, when Alaric, the terrible king of the Visigoths, had sacked and burned the City of the Seven Hills, his brother, Adolph, crossing the Pyrenees, penetrated into Spain, and founded, in that secluded province of the Roman Empire, a kingdom, of which the capital was Toledo—situated on a steep rock, that was washed on three sides by the waters of the Tagus.

The Gothic monarchy, thus established, lasted for three centuries, when Roderick, who wore the crown of Spain, ravished the daughter of a Count named Julian, and thus created an implacable foe. Boiling with resentment, and panting for vengeance, Count Julian crossed to Barbary, and invoked the aid of the adventurous Moors; and forthwith the sound of Moorish horns, and the neighing of war-steeds, and the waving of the Crescent, announced that a Saracenic host had invaded the sunny fields of Spain.

King Roderick encountered the Moors in several battles; and at length, in the summer of 711, a decisive conflict took place at Xeres. There the King and the flower of his chivalry perished; and the cities quietly yielding to the turbaned victors, a splendid Moorish monarchy was instituted under princes of the ine of Omeyades. They exercised a temporal as well as spiritual authority, selected Cordova as their seat of empire, and adorned that city with magnificent palaces, colleges, libraries, hospitals, mosques, bridges, and fountains.

The vanquished Spaniards, so far from being harshly treated, enjoyed so much civil and religious freedom, that many remained in their native regions; and the Spanish women, with the usual partiality of the gentler sex for foreigners, freely availed themselves of the invitation to intermarry with the conquerors. Such of the proud barons, indeed, as disdained to submit, escaped to neighboring countries; while others, departing from Andalusia, with its sunny skies and fair landscapes, moved northward, and formed themselves into petty states, at such mortal enmity with each other, and so exposed to the predatory incursions of the Arab cavalry, that the chieftains were under the necessity of keeping their followers in harness night and day.

Notwithstanding their internal feuds, the eyes of the Spaniards were perpetually turned, with the longing of exiles, toward the land of corn and wine, of which they had been dispossessed: and they contemplated, with fierce indignation, the Crescent glittering on mosques under which their sires had worshiped the Christian's God. Invoking as their patron St. James, on his white steed, bearing the banner of the Cross, they deemed themselves the champions at once of their country and Christendom; and the Spanish nobles, thus trained from infancy to serve against the Moors, were continually advancing southward, and in the stern school of adversity regained among the mountains of Gallicia so much of their ancestral valor as to render them formidable foes.

Thus it came to pass, that in the thirteenth century the Cordovan empire had been reduced to the little province of Granada, in the midst of which stood the beautiful city of that name, on one of whose hills rose the far-famed Alhambra; while the kingdom of Castile was not only receiving the homage of other states, but even that of the Moorish King, who pledged himself to pay an annual rent, to serve in war with a certain number of knights, and to attend the Cortes, or legislative assembly, when summoned.

A hundred years later, Castile was the scene of fierce civil war. Pedro, surnamed the Cruel, had rendered himself unpopular by the severity with which he treated his enemies; and his illegitimate brother, Henry of Trastamare, conceived the idea of seizing the throne. With this view he applied to Charles V. of France, who sent to his aid several companies of Free Lances, commanded by Bertrand Du Guesclin, one of the most valiant warriors of the

age. These terrible adventurers, after passing Avignon, and compelling the Pope to bestow upon them gold and his blessing, entered Spain. Pedro disbanded his troops and sought shelter in Gascony, at the court of Edward the Black Prince, by whom he was honorably received; while his rival was proclaimed King in his stead. However, the Prince of Wales took up arms in Pedro's behalf, and marched against Du Guesclin, who was defeated and made prisoner in the battle of Navaretto, which restored Pedro to his throne. Henry thereupon fled into France, but on the Black Prince's return to England he was once more seated on the throne by the hand of Du Guesclin; and Pedro, being defeated near Montia, was taken prisoner, and carried into the tent of a French knight. Henry, learning where the captive was, hurried thither; and the brothers sprang upon each other with deadly intent. A violent struggle ensued, and Pedro was gaining the advantage, when one of Henry's followers interfering, the latter got the upper hand, and stabbed his unfortunate brother to the heart. Pedro's head was thereupon cut off; but his remains were subsequently interred at Seville with regal honors by his daughter, Constance, the wife of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster.

Henry of Trastamare transmitted the crown of Castile to his descendants, whose disputed title was decidedly favorable to public liberty, and rendered them deferential to popular opinion, till the reign of Henry IV., who ascended the Castilian throne with the promise of a crusade against the Moors of Granada. The preparations made by him for that purpose were attended by results so inadequate, that he fell into contempt with friends and foes. Having divorced his first wife, Blanche of Aragon, he espoused Joanna, daughter of the King of Portugal. The conduct of the latter princess was so far from discreet, that it gave occasion for grave scandal, and she was accused of a too close intimacy with Beltran de la Cueva, a handsome courtier; while Henry openly doted on a fascinating maid of honor, who had attended his Queen to the Castilian court. Thus it happened, that when he required the oath of allegiance to be sworn to his daughter Joanna it was objected to, on the suspicion of her being illegitimate, and his subjects rebelled with the object of placing his brother Alphonso on the throne

In the year 1465, on a plain outside the walls of Avila, a platform was erected; and thereon was placed, in royal robes, an effigy of Henry, with the crown on his head, the sceptre in his hand, and the sword of justice by his side. A sentence of deposition was pronounced: the Archbishop of Toledo tore off the crown; one Count snatched away the sword; another removed the sceptre; a third tumbled the figure headlong on the ground; and proclamation was made that Don Alphonso was King of Castile and Leon. But Alphonso died in 1468; and Henry,

though reduced to the depths of despair, continued to reign till his decease in 1474.

His daughter Joanna not being considered worthy of occupying the throne, his sister Isabella was recognized as heir to the deceased sovereign. The young Queen, one of the most interesting characters in history, was highly endowed both in mind and person. Intelligence bearned in her mild blue eye, and was displayed in a manner which, though modest, was particularly gracious and dignified. In her nineteenth year she had been united to Ferdinand, the hereditary sovereign of Aragon, in conjunction with whom she now began to reign over the united kingdoms. They were not, however, undisturbed; for Alphonso, king of Portugal, whose victories over the Barbary Moors had gained for him the eognomen of "the African," having been affianced to the princess Joanna, invaded Castile to vindicate her claim to the crown. nand, by a herald, challenged the invader to fight with his whole army or by single combat, and the hostile ranks encountered. Castilian valor prevailed; the standard of Portugal was torn to shreds; the King escaped to a fortified castle, and soon after he withdrew with his youthful bride into Portugal; but the Pope having forbidden their marriage, the hapless princess sought consolation in a convent.

Ferdinand and Isabella, being now secure, introduced several important reforms for the observance of law, the administration of justice, and the regula-

tion of trade. The Moorish kingdom of Granada was so tempting a prize, that they determined on annexing it to their dominions. Hitherto the two nations, in spite of their natural enmity, had enjoyed much, and not unimportant, friendly intercourse. The Spaniards had acquired something of Arabian gravity of demeanor, magnificence of air, and reserve in conversation, from communicating with their Saraeenic neighbors. As late as 1463 Henry had held a personal interview with the King of Granada, under a splendid pavilion creeted in the vega, at the foot of the Alhambra, and after an exchange of presents, the Spanish sovereign had been escorted to his frontiers by Moorish cavaliers; but in 1476, when the annual tribute was demanded, the Moorish king proudly replied, that the mints of Granada coined gold no longer, but steel; and he soon after attacked and carried off the population of the town of Zahara. At this crisis the high-spirited Moor died, and was succeeded by his nephew, the Thereupon Ferdiweak and unfortunate Boabdil. nand, entering Granada with the whole force of Arragon and Castile, besieged the city for eight months. The Moorish King then came to the gates, and presenting the keys on a cushion to Ferdinand and Isabella, implored their protection. The valley of Piorchena was assigned him as a residence; but being discontented with his lot, he after a little delay went over to Barbary. On Friday, the 6th of January, 1492, Ferdinand and his Queen made their entrance





COLUMBUS

into Granada; the Moslem crescents were plucked from the minarets of the Alhambra, and the arms of Castile and Aragon were displayed in their stead.

The conquest of Granada made Ferdinand master of the fairest province in the Peninsula; and, assuming the title of King of Spain, he recovered from France the districts of which Louis the Crafty had taken possession. He then established the Court of Inquisition, which consigned thousands of his subjects to the flames for heresy, and was put in force against the Jews, who fled by thousands, with their industry and intelligence, to the other states of Europe. For these services, Ferdinand and Isabella were rewarded by the Pope with the title of Catholic Majesties.

About this time Christopher Columbus received from the court of Spain the encouragement which led to discoveries so important. A native of Genoa, he had unsuccessfully applied to the Government of that state for aid in his daring project of sailing to the East Indies by the west, and then made proposals to the Kings of England and Portugal, which were rejected. In 1486 he came to urge his schemes upon the sovereigns of Spain; but after six years of fruitless entreaty, was on the point of leaving the country, when Isabella, at the instance of her confessor, summoned the suitor to her presence. At this interview, the solemn aspect, grave air, and dignified appearance of Columbus, made so favorable an impression on the Queen, that she ordered a fleet of three vessels to be

fitted out at Palos. At that port, with a hundred and twenty companions, Columbus embarked on the 3d of August, 1492; and on the 12th of October, after thirty days' sail from Canary, came in sight of land, which proved to be one of the Bahama Islands. When the sun rose, the adventurers, manning their boats, rowed ashore, playing martial music, and displaying the royal standard. Columbus, in a searlet dress, and bearing a naked sword, set his foot on the soil of the new world, and after taking possession of the island on behalf of the Castilian sovereigns, gave it the name of San Salvador. The natives gazed on in silent surprise, and in the simplicity of their hearts believed the Spaniards to be preternatural beings.

Pursuing his career of discovery, Columbus took possession of Cuba and St. Domingo, and then returned in triumph to Spain. At Barcelona he was received by Ferdinand and Isabella with the utmost favor, and desired to sit covered, like a grandee of the realm. A fleet of seventeen ships was fitted out, and he undertook a second voyage, which ended in disappointment; but during a third, on the 1st of August, 1498, he discovered the continent of America, and carried six of the natives to St. Domingo, as evidence of his success. But the great navigator was doomed to humiliating reverses: his enemies prevailed at Madrid; he was displaced from his offices, and sent home in chains. Being set at liberty on arrival, he undertook a fourth expedition, from which, after being ship-

wrecked on the island of Jamaica, he arrived in Spain in 1505; but Isabella having meantime died, he was allowed by Ferdinand to drag out his career in obscurity at Valladolid.

Ferdinand, after taking an important part in the Italian wars, where his general, Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, signalized his military skill against the French, died in 1516, and an Austrian prince ascended the Spanish throne.

It has been already stated that Mary of Burgundy, daughter and heiress of that fiery Duke who fell fighting against the Swiss, became wife of Maximilian, afterward Emperor of Germany. In the month of February, 1482, that noble lady was holding her court in the city of Bruges, in Flanders, then a great commercial emporium of Europe; and, mounting her palfrey one day, she rode forth, with a small retinue, to fly her hawks at the herons, which abounded in the vicinity. While pursuing the sport and leaping a fence, the girths of her saddle burst, and she was thrown violently against a tree. Dying from the effects of the accident, Mary left a son, named Philip, who espoused Ferdinand's daughter, Jane the Fcolish, and had a son Charles, born at Ghent in 1500. On the demise of Isabella, Jane, as her daughter, became Queen of Castile; but immediately after, the sudden death of Philip bereft his young widow of her reason. Her case was hopeless; and on Ferdinand's death, young Charles of Austria was associated with his insane mother on the Spanish throne, while the aged Cardinal Ximenes, a consummate statesman, grasped the reins of government with vigor and dexterity. Three years later, on the death of his grandfather, Maximilian, the ambitious King of Spain, was elected Emperor of Germany; and thus becoming the most powerful monarch in Europe, he commenced that long and arduous struggle with Francis I. which has been previously sketched.

At the time when Charles received the imperial crown there was residing on the island of Cuba a Spaniard, named Hernandez Cortez, the seion of an ancient and honorable family. He had left the mother country at nineteen, become proprietor of a flourishing plantation, married a young woman of beauty and excellence, and acquired high favor with Velasquez, governor of the colony. Yet, though apparently destined to a prosperous and peaceful career, so adventurous was the spirit of Cortez, that he sought and obtained the command of a squadron which the governor was fitting out for a voyage of discovery to the American continent. Dreading the bold and ambitious nature of Cortez, the governor recalled this promise, and appointed another as captain; but Cortez got under way in the night, with the ships half-stored and equipped, and sailed from Cuba, never more to return. Arriving in the river Tabasco, he landed in spite of a desperate resistance, made the natives swear allegiance to the King of Spain, caused mass to be celebrated in the principal temples, formed an alliance with the Tlascalans, a warlike Indian tribe, and rolled the tide of conquest toward the capital of Mexico.

Montezuma, the Mexican Emperor, received the strangers with veneration, swore fealty to Spain, placed himself in the custody of Cortez, and assigned a temple as a Christian place of worship. This last concession was too much for his heathen subjects, who, instigated by their priests, declared that the Spaniards must perish on the altars they had violated. Cortez was preparing for a fierce struggle, when informed that there had anchored off the coast a fleet, commanded by Narvaez, a brave officer, commissioned by the Governor of Cuba to supersede him. Aware that his only chance lay in a sudden stroke, Cortez, with seventy picked men, set out for the camp of Narvaez, and after arresting his rival in a dark night, allured the soldiers to his standard, and returned to the capital. There the fury of the Mexicans had become so great, that Montezuma in vain attempted to allay the storm; and mortified at his loss of authority, the Emperor expired, while the streets were througed with countless multitudes, who for successive days besieged the palace where the Spaniards were lodged.

In this terrible situation, Cortez resolved to cut his way to the territory of his Tlascalan allies; and on a July night, after hearing mass, he led his followers from their quarters in the centre of the city. After a bloody fight on the causeway he effected an escape,

and reached the open country; but there his little army was suddenly attacked by an overwhelming force. The position of the Spaniards seemed desperate, when Cortez, ever cool and courageous, suddenly, penetrated to where the enemy's banner was displayed, killed with his own hand the Mexican general, and instantly changed the fortune of the day. Resting from his fatigues till the autumn, he returned to the capital, where Gautemozin now reigned as Emperor, and commenced warlike operations. But in May, 1521, Cortez, hopeless of otherwise accomplishing his object, took the terrible resolution of destroying every house as he advanced. Burning palaces and temples, he gradually made his way into the market-place, and then reluctantly gave orders for a general assault. The battle, which lasted for two days, was decisive: the youthful Emperor, being taken in a canoe, was executed: and the independence of Mexico was extinguished.

Soon after the conquest of Mexico, Francis Pizarro, landing in Peru with a formidable force, subdued that large, powerful, and flourishing empire, compelled the Peruvians to work the mines for their advantage, and added the conquered territory to the possessions of the Spanish crown.

While his gallant subjects, stimulated by the desire of wealth, were winning for Charles an empire on which the sun never set, war was carried on in Europe; and his great rival, Francis, taken at Pavia, was lying at his mercy in Madrid. But though the might of the Emperor overshadowed the princes of Europe, the Spaniards, regarding him as a stranger and foreigner, revolted in defense of their political rights: the civil wars of the *Communeros* were the consequence; and Charles, having excluded the grandees from the representation, succeeded in withering by his despotism the free spirit that had long animated the ancient institutions of Castile and Aragon.

While the religious reformation was agitating the other states of Europe, the Spanish nation remained unmoved by the shock, and out of it came Ignatius Loyola, destined not only to rescue the imperiled Papacy, but to breathe new life into the expiring system by which Rome had for centuries held the human intellect in sacerdotal bondage.

When King Francis began his wars with the Emperor, by sending an army to recover the little kingdom of Navarre for the family of D'Albret, and when the French General laid siege to the town of Pampeluna, among the Spanish garrison was a gallant knight, about thirty years of age, who had been born in the Castle of Loyola, and educated at the court of Ferdinand. His person was handsome, his heart owned the might of beauty's spell, and his soul glowed with the fire of chivalry and ambition. When others talked of capitulating, he treated the idea with disdain, and mounting the ramparts in a suit of glittering mail, repelled the assailants. A ball striking the wall where

he stood, broke his left leg; and as he fell senseless, the Spaniards surrendered. But the French, with a generous appreciation of the wounded knight's valor, bore him to the Castle of Loyola, where, having unflinchingly endured an excruciating operation, he slowly recovered. To kill the tedious hours while on a sick bed, the prostrate cavalier, in the absence of romantic tomes, read the Life of Christ; and gradually conceived for the heroism of saints and the sufferings of martyrs an admiration which the brightest deeds of chivalry could no longer excite in his breast. On rising, he invited his old companions to a last repast, and then, betaking himself to a cave among rocks, gave his gay attire to a beggar, clothed himself in sackcloth, and mortified his spirit with fasts and vigils. Thence, with a pilgrim's staff in his hand, though still lame, he journeyed by secluded paths to the Convent of Mauresa, where, after some natural sighs for the lady he had loved as well as the world he had left, after allowing his hair and his nails to grow, the once blooming and brilliant warrior was, by eruel penances, transformed into a pale Dominican monk. At length, under the influence of the strong delusions he had fostered, this extraordinary man instituted, in 1535, a religious brotherhood, not confined to cloisters, but appointed to mix with and influence mankind, to combat the progress of open heresy, to repress mutiny within the Church, to convert the world to the Romish faith, and to establish the

supremacy of the Pope. The metamorphosed knight was Ignatius Loyola, and the order founded was the Society of the Jesuits.

Eight years after his rival had gone to the grave, Charles, in 1556, abdicated the Spanish throne in favor of his son Philip, and a few months later, weary of war and disgusted with grandeur, he resigned the imperial crown to his brother Ferdinand, and retired to indulge his melancholy mood in the monastery of St. Just, on the frontiers of Castile. While there he is reported to have enacted no less extraordinary a scene than the celebration of his own funeral obsequies. After causing a tomb to be erected in the chapel, and making his attendants walk thither in procession, the ex-Emperor followed in his shroud, and was laid in his coffin. The monks then chanted the service for the dead, prayed for the repose of his soul, and shed tears for his departure. This singular ceremony is said to have thrown Charles into a fever, of which he expired in his fifty-ninth vear.

Philip II. inherited one of the wealthiest and most magnificent empires on which the sun ever shone, and he sought to increase his hereditary influence by espousing Mary, queen, of England, who loved him with the utmost tenderness. But, notwithstanding her displays of affection, Philip, tiring of the society of a spouse so destitute of attractions, and indignant that her subjects would not allow England to be

made a fief of Spain, escaped to his Continental dominions. However, when the Pope, jealous of the King's enormous power, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France, to detach Milan and the Sicilies from the crown of Spain, Philip considered it expedient to feign some esteem for his Queen, and paying her a visit at Greenwich, obtained the aid of England in his struggle. His army was victorious over the French, led by the Constable Montmorency, at St. Quentin; and at Gravelines the Count Egmont vanquished the old Marshal Thermes; after which the King of France, by the Treaty of Cambresis, surrendered to Spain eighty-nine fortified towns in Italy and the Low Countries.

Philip was destined to deal with a sovereign infinitely less accommodating: for, ere the treaty of peace was signed, Queen Mary had breathed her last, and been succeeded on the English throne by a princess whose policy baffled his schemes, and whose courage defied his vengeance. After, in vain, soliciting the coveted hand of Elizabeth, Philip wedded, a daughter of Catherine de Medici; and becoming disquieted on the score of religion, he resolved to gratify his natural bigotry by extirpating from his dominions every species of heresy. He began with the Netherlands, where the Reformed doctrines had made considerable progress, and established the Inquisition with plenary power: but this alienated the hearts of the inhabitants, who, choosing as their leader William of

Orange, a Count of the Empire, bravely resisted the power of Spain. Philip proscribed, and set a price on the head of, the Prince of Orange, who was soon assassinated; but his son, Maurice, appeared as his cuccessor, and, with the aid of Queen Elizabeth, ere tong secured the independence of the United Provinces.

Philip, exasperated by the assistance which the English Queen had afforded to the revolted Netherlands, having meantime seized on Portugal, commenced fitting out the Invincible Armada for the invasion of England; and preparations were in full progress when suddenly Sir Francis Drake made a dash at Cadiz, and after destroying thirty vessels scoured the Spanish coast, burning and shattering many castles and ships. The King's naval operations were thus delayed till May, 1588, when the Armada, consisting of a hundred and thirty sail, left the Tagus under the command of the Duke of Medina, who hoped to steer through the Channel to Flanders, and form a junction with the Duke of Parma. But being attacked by the English Admiral, and after several engagements driven toward Orkney, the fleet was so effectually scattered by a tempest, that the Duke returned to Spain with not more than sixty shattered vessels.

Spanish ambition was soon directed toward another country. The extinction of the house of Valois, and the enmity of the League to Henry of Navarre, inspired Philip with the hope of placing

his daughter Isabella on the throne of her maternal uncle, and he sent into France Alexander Farnese. the great Duke of Parma. That famous general, after nearly seizing Henry at the battle of Aumale, forced him to raise the siege of Rouen; but the King, by a series of active manœuvres, hemmed in Parma between the sea, the Seine, and three divisions of his army. In this perilous crisis, the aged warrior, though his frame was bowed down with fever, manifested his approved genius. Rousing himself to energy, and eluding the vigilance of the enemy, he erected a bridge in a single night, crossed the river undeteeted, and brought off the Spanish army in safety. The Spaniards still occupied Paris; but, on the day when King Henry entered his capital, they marched out with the honors of war. The hero of Ivry placed himself at a window to see the troops retire. "Gentlemen," cried he, with a laughing sneer, "present my compliments to your master, but come no longer here."

However, in 1596, war being formally declared, the Spaniards seized Calais, with other walled towns; and in alarm Queen Elizabeth dispatched a fleet to Cadiz, under the young and accomplished Earl of Essex. Landing in spite of the fire from the forts and battlements, the English forced the town to capitulate, made the inhabitants pay for their lives, razed the fortifications, and burned the houses. In revenge, Philip sent ships to threaten the English coast, though

without any success; and at length, satiated with the blood which had been shed in promotion of his various and ambitious designs, he signed the Peace of Vervins. On the eve of the battle of St. Quentin, Philip had vowed, in the event of victory, to build, in honor of St. Laurence, a church, a monastery, and a palace; and, in fulfillment of this vow, he erected near Madrid the magnificent palace of the Escurial, which contained the residence and mausoleum of the sovereigns of Spain. Expiring in 1598, he was laid in the cemetery which he had formed beneath the pavement of the church; and his son, Philip III., ascended the throne.

From that period Spain declined in power and importance, though her empire was long, to outward appearance, great and magnificent. The new king, who was not less bigoted than his gloomy sire, prosecuted the war against the United Provinces, but, in 1609, was forced to conclude a treaty at the Hague, which secured civil and religious freedom to the new republie, and restored the confiscated estates of the house of Orange. Yet, untaught by experience, and under the inspiration of his minister, the Duke of Lerma, he issued an edict, ordering the Morescoes, or descendants of the Moors, to leave the kingdom within thirty days, and thus farther enfeebled a state which war and emigration had previously deprived of so many energetic and industrious inhabitants. The Morescoes had been conspicuous for their skill and ingenuity in arts and

manufactures, and this depopulation produced a most baneful effect.

Philip IV. succeeded, on his father's decease, to an empire more extensive indeed than the realms of the Grand Monarch, but corrupt in all its parts, and in a state of hopeless prostration. The result soon appeared. Brazil was taken by the Dutch; Catalonia revolted to France; and to suppress the rebellion, the Portuguese were intrusted with arms. The latter, turning against their oppressive governors, placed the Duke of Braganza on the throne; and Philip was one of the last personages in Europe who heard of the important event. Shut up in the recesses of the Escurial, he was indulging in licentious dissipation, when one day his able and artful minister, Olivarez, eraved an audience. "I bring," said he, "good news to your majesty. The Duke of Braganza's whole fortune is yours. He has presumptuously got himself declared King of Portugal, and, consequently, you are entitled to the forfeiture of all his estates." Philip, lost in luxurious enjoyment, only replied, "Let the sequestration be ordered." And Portugal was lost to him beyond the hope of recovery.

A war which broke out with France was terminated, in 1659, by the Peace of the Pyrenees, which was negotiated by the erafty Mazarin; and by this treaty it was stipulated that Louis XIV. should espouse the King's eldest daughter, she renouncing all claim to the succession.

In 1665, Philip expired, and his son Charles succeeded. The kingdom was in a deplorable state, and its ruler a prey to listless melancholy and extravagant superstitions; so the Kings of France and England, seeing that Charles had no heirs, and that his days were numbered, agreed to a treaty of partition. This roused the languishing monarch into temporary indignation, which Louis, though the chief offender, succeeded in turning entirely against the other powers. Thus it happened, that while the Spanish embassador was so insolent in his remonstrances at the court of St. James's, that William commanded him to leave England, Charles, in making a destination of his territories by will, after numerous consultations with the Pope, the Spanish Universities, and his own Council, nominated as his heir Philip, duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin of France, and grandson of Louis. Having thus laid the foundation of a memorable war, Charles died on the 3d of November, 1700.

When it was publicly announced that the kingdom of Spain had been bequeathed to the Duke of Anjou, Louis, with an unscrupulous disregard of the obligations he had incurred by treaties, acknowledged his grandson as Philip V., and rejoiced in the thought of all the rich possessions of the crown of Spain being transferred to the house of Bourbon. Philip hastened to take possession of the magnificent legacy; his brothers accompanied him to the frontier; and Louis made

use of the vain, but significant words—"The Pyrenees exist no longer."

In the reign of Queen Elizabeth it had been the policy of England to support the house of Bourbon against that of Austria, then in the fullness of power, but now the pride and ambition of France had grown to such a height that an opposite course was deemed wise and expedient. Moreover, both the King and people of England were stung to the quick at the proclamation, in Paris, of the Pretender as James III.; a cry for war was raised in all parts of the country; and William, having formed the Grand Alliance, prepared for hostilities, when the resolute and energetic spirit was separated from its frail and wasted tenement of clay. But Queen Anne succeeded her brother-in-law, and forthwith, to place Charles of Austria on the Spanish throne, was commenced that terrible contest known in history as the War of the Succession.

While Marlborough began with glory the war in Flanders, Admiral Rooke and the Duke of Ormond made an attack on Cadiz; but failing in the attempt they sailed to the port of Vigo, and captured some rich Spanish galleons from the Havana. Louis sent to the aid of his feeble and indolent grandson an army commanded by the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James II., whose military skill held the Allies in check during the campaign of 1704; but during that year Admiral Rooke, having appeared before Gibral-

tar, made his men climb the rock, and display the lion flag of England from its heights.

Next year was distinguished by the brilliant exploits of Charles Mordaunt, earl of Peterborough, a man of singular talent and eccentricity, who, landing in Catalonia, took Barcelona, and caused the Archduke Charles to be proclaimed King of Spain. Shortly after, an English army appeared on the heights above Madrid, and Philip with his Quoen, a princess of Savoy, fled in alarm to Burgos, a city of old Castile, while the English, entering Madrid in triumph, proclaimed the Archduke in the streets as Charles III

The struggle, for a time, appeared to be terminating in favor of the Austrian claimant; but a reaction was at hand. The spirit of the Spanish peasantry, who during the contest had seemed dormant, burst forth when the affairs of Philip were at the worst. They subscribed money, and took up arms in the cause of their fugitive King; and about the same time the romantic and volatile Peterborough, having lost all patience with the tardy Archduke, declared that men were great fools to fight for two such blockheads as Charles and Philip, and finally obtained permission to leave the allied army.

From the day of Peterborough's departure for England the fortunes of Philip brightened and rose. The Duke of Berwick compelled his adversaries to retreat on Valencia, where the inhabitants favored the Aus-

trian claim; and on the plains of Almanza the Allies were so completely defeated, that the French, pursuing their conquests, occupied every place but Catalonia. General Stanhope now took the command of the English army. In 1710 bolder enterprises were ventured on; the troops of Philip were twice ronted; the Allies again marched into Madrid; and the King, a second time, fled from his capital. But, once more, the proud, high-spirited peasants of Castile seized their pikes and fire-locks; and the invaders, finding themselves in the heart of a population haughtily hostile, commenced a retreat in the direction of Aragon.

Louis, perplexed in the extreme by the brilliant victories of Marlborough, had made overtures for peace, little in accordance with his proud spirit, and even offered to abandon the cause of his grandson; but being unsuccessful, he sent into Spain the famous Duke of Vendôme, whose name was the terror of his enemies. Vendôme accomplished his march with incredible speed, and coming up to Brihuega, where Stanhope had arrived with eight squadrons and eight battalions, invested the town, and after a terrible struggle captured the English general and his little army. By a victory on the following day he rendered the Austrian cause hopeless, and every prospect of seating the Archduke on the Spanish throne was at an end.

At this period great political changes occurred in

England. Queen Anne conceived an aversion toward the Duchess of Marlborough; the illustrious Duke was disgraced; Harley and St. John acceded to power; and negotiations were commenced at Utrecht, which resulted in a European peace. Philip, for himself and his posterity, renounced all claim to the throne of France; the heirs of Louis precluded themselves from the throne of Spain; Majorca and Gibraltar remained in possession of England; and the Archduke Charles succeeded his brother as Emperor of Germany.

Soon after the peace of Utreeht, a bitter quarrel arose between the two branches of the house of Bourbon; a Spanish fleet attacked the coast of Brittany; a French army, under the Duke of Berwick, entered Spain: but amity was restored by the Quadruple Treaty, signed at the Hague in 1720. Three years later the Infanta was sent to Paris as the betrothed bride of the young King Louis, and a daughter of the Regent Orleans arrived at Madrid as the prospective wife of the Prince of Asturias; but the Duke of Bourbon, being elevated to the post of Prince Minister, dissolved these alliances, and returned the Infanta to her father.

Philip had in the preceding year, in submission to the Jesuits, abdicated the Spanish throne in favor of his son Ludovico; but that prince dying after a reign of seven months, and his younger brother being only ten years of age, the old King was prevailed on to resume the sceptre. He had scarcely reascended the throne when intelligence was received of Bourbon having broken off the intended marriage—an insult which Castilian pride could not brook. Philip formed an alliance with his former rival, the Emperor Charles; but the dismissal of Bourbon and the pacific effects of the Cardinal Fleury restored peace between the toyal kinsmen; and in 1734, Philip, invading Italy, placed his son Don Carlos upon the throne of Naples.

Ferdinand V., a prince of a mild and pacific disposition, succeeded his father in 1746, and gave much encouragement to arts, commerce, and manufactures; but the death of his Queen overwhelmed him in such grief that he died in 1759. His brother Don Carlos, ascending the throne with the title of Charles III., was induced to sign, with France, that family compact which stipulated for reciprocal aid between the different branches of the Bourbons, and denounced as the enemy of all any power that might hereafter be at war with one.

Ferdinand and his subjects had soon cause to repent of this temerity; for the Seven Years' War began, and the arms of England were signally triumphant. Havana was taken by the English in 1762, and Spain suffered enormous losses, till the Treaty of Fontainebleau put an end to the war, and restored her possessions.

Charles was once more drawn into war with England; and in 1779 commenced that siege of Gibraltar, which for two years was persisted in without

effect. At length, in 1782, when the defense had been intrusted to General Elliot, a grand attack was resolved on, and King Charles inquired every morning, on waking, "Is it taken?" On the 13th of September a mighty effort was made: a French engineer had constructed floating batteries, which he said could neither be sunk nor set on fire; and four hundred pieces of the heaviest artillery were brought to bear on the fortress. But the red-hot balls fired by the garrison were irresistible in their effect; the hostile batteries were destroyed, the ships sunk, and most of the besiegers with them. Elliot, for his gallant and memorable defense, was ennobled, with the title of Lord Heathfield, and peace was concluded next year.

Soon after this failure, King Charles made an attempt to reform the dress and manners of his subjects, and carried his measures to so imprudent a length, that an insurrection occurred at Madrid, and he was under the necessity of dismissing his favorite minister, Squillace. The earthly career of Charles closed in 1788, and he was succeeded by his son, Charles IV.

When, in 1793, a confederacy was formed against the French Republic, Charles joined in the league; but a French army being sent into Spain, he changed sides, and was soon inspired with a high admiration of the Emperor Napoleon. His subjects being still animated by their ancient hatred toward England, Charles was not averse to minister to Napoleon's ambition, and in 1805 they declared war in concert; but their united fleets were destroyed in the great battle of Trafalgar.

Still it was in Bonaparte's power to exercise a sovereign influence over Spain, without infringing on that national spirit which, a century earlier, had resisted the allies of the House of Austria; till the dissensions in the royal family stimulated his ambition. Charles, a feeble prince, entirely under the influence of Godov, the Queen's favorite, had fallen into contempt. His son, Ferdinand, was the idol of the nation; and Napoleon was entreated to arbitrate in regard to their differences. He seized the occasion to send an army across the Pyrenees under Murat, who suddenly took possession of Barcelona and several strongholds. Soon after, Napoleon demanded a surrender of the provinces on the left bank of the Ebro. Charles and his spouse were dumb with surprise; Godov advised the King and Queen to embark for their American dominions; and preparations were made with that view. But their son, Ferdinand, opposing the step, summoned the populace, raised an insurrection, in which the royal troops took part, caused Godoy to be arrested, kept the King prisoner, and after procuring an abdication in his own favor, entered Madrid in haughty triumph as Sovereign of Spain.

Brief was his ovation; for on the following day Murat marched his army into the capital, and Charles protested against his compulsory abdication; but though Murat refused to acknowledge the royalty of Ferdinand, he administered no comfort to Charles—"Napoleon alone," he said, "can decide between the father and the son."

What that meant was ere long beyond all doubt; for the Emperor going to Bayonne, summoned thither the King as well as his undutiful heir. He then decided the matter by making Charles abdicate in his own favor, by imprisoning Ferdinand in the Château of Valencay, and by assigning that of Compiègne as a residence for the deposed monarch.

Murat, meanwhile, retained possession of Madrid; and, under French influence, the Council of Castile demanded as king the Emperor's eldest brother, Joseph. The latter, resigning the crown of Naples to Murat, hastened to Bayonne, where he was acknowledged as sovereign of Spain by various deputations. But, ere his entry into Madrid, the Spanish peasantry had indignantly taken up arms; the clergy had inflamed their enthusiasm by representing Napoleon as Antichrist; the royal troops joined the insurgents; a cry of vengeance arose throughout the land; and at Cadiz the French fleet was seized and the crew tlanghtered. The victory of Bessières opened the gates of Madrid to King Joseph; who, however, was fain, when Dupont capitulated at Bayleu, to leave the city within a week of his triumphant entry; and he soon possessed in all Spain no more than Navarre, Biscay, and Barcelona.

Ambitious of subjugating Spain, the Emperor summoned thither his still unconquered legions, and placing himself at their head, was victorious in three engagements. Entering Madrid, he tempted the inhabitants with promises of franchises and the abolition of feudalism; but their ears were closed against all offers.

The Spaniards were resolutely rising in organized bands, and the English army was approaching, when the news arrived that Austria had formed a new coalition with England, Bonaparte withdrew to the Rhine, while the Spaniards hailed their ancient enemies as deliverers, and the English defeated King Joseph in the battle of Talavera. The victory of Wellington over Marmont at Salamanca, in 1812, and that over King Joseph at Vittoria, in 1813, brought the English to the Pyrenees; and Spain was irreclaimably lost to the Empire of the French.

Emerging from his prison at Valeneay, Ferdinand VII. returned to take possession of his ancestral throne; but the princes of restored dynasties are the most infatuated of beings, and the new King of Spain did not escape the general doom. Instead of granting liberal institutions, he, at the instigation of the priests, re-established the hateful Inquisition, and practiced his tyrannies so ruthlessly, that, in 1820, the endurance of his subjects was at an end. Riego, rising in arms, proclaimed the Constitution which the Cortes had adopted in 1812; and, though he was unsuccessful; the greater

part of the nation rose. The army joined the insurgents, and, though Ferdinand announced his intention of convening the Cortes and granting reforms, his offers were despised. The populace throughd and clamored around his palace; and the wretched King was fain to proclaim the Constitution.

At that time, the Congress of Verona, convoked to consider the affairs of Greece, found the Spanish revolution a much more exciting topic; a French army on the frontier was ready to aid Ferdinand, but the Duke of Wellington, as representative of England, objected to intervention. Nevertheless, in 1823, the troops, under the Duke of Angoulême, crossed the Pyrenees, and entered Madrid. Ferdinand, who had previously been deposed by the Cortes, on being restored by French arms annulled every act of the Constitutional Government, and Riego was hanged on a very high gibbet, without being permitted to address the people.

In 1833, Ferdinand, from indulging to excess in eating, died of apoplexy, having previously nominated his Queen as Regent during the minority of her daughter, Isabella II., then three years of age. The new reign began with civil strife, for Don Carlos, uncle of the youthful sovereign, aspired to the crown, and on his return from exile the Carlist war for years desolated the unfortunate country.

CHAPTER VIII.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.

WHILE Spaniard was struggling against Moor-Christian against Saracen—the Cross against the Crescent-there came to the aid of Alphonso, king of Castile, a noble volunteer, celebrated as Henry of Burgundy, who rendered such efficient assistance, that the Castilian sovereign in gratitude bestowed upon him the hand of his daughter and the province of Portugal. Henry was content with the title of Count; but his son Alphonso, having achieved a decisive victory over no fewer than five Moorish kings, was, by his soldiers, invested with royal rank in 1139. He soon after, with the assistance of the Crusaders, gained possession of Lisbon; made matters pleasant with the Pope, by paying annually two marks of gold; reigned with a high character for courage and wisdom during fortysix years, and transmitted the regal dignity to his descendants, who were involved in perpetual war with the Moors.

In 1383, however, King Ferdinand of Portugal died without male issue; the King of Castile, who had esponsed the Infanta, claimed the throne, and the

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matter remained in abeyance for eighteen months. But at the end of that time the States of Portugal bestowed the crown upon John, a natural brother of the deceased sovereign; and he, proving quite worthy of his elevation, formed a navy, and maintained the dignity of his kingdom. His third son, Don Henry, was remarkable for enterprise; and equipping a single ship, projected discoveries in the Western Ocean. Driven out to sea, he landed on the island of Porto Santo; and the mariners, emboldened by this aceident to venture into the open sea, were rewarded by the discovery, in 1420, of Madeira, where their colonists planted the Cyprus vine and the sugar-cane. Encouraged by this success, Henry obtained a papal bull, granting to the Portuguese whatever countries they might discover between Cape Horn and India; and soon after the Cape de Verd Islands were added to their colonies.

Edward having succeeded his father John, and Edward's son, Alphonso V., whose victory over the Moors won him the cognomen of "the African," having occupied the throne, John II., a prince of sagacity and intelligence, but of a hot and enterprising temper, inherited the sceptre, and made Lisbon a free port. The profits derived by the Venetians from their trade with the East tempted the avidity of the Portuguese, who prosecuted discoveries with ardor, made conquests, and established their commerce in the interior of Africa; and, led by Captain Diaz, in 1486 they passed

the extreme point of Africa, to which they gave the name of the "Stormy Cape." "No," said King John, who recognized the value of this discovery, "let it be called the Cape of Good Hope."

The spirit of enterprise was now fully awakened; and Emanuel the Fortunate, John's successor, sent out a fleet under Vasco de Gama, who, doubling the Cape, after a voyage of thirteen months achieved the passage to India by sea. Another Portuguese admiral, Alvarez de Cabral, while sailing to India, and keeping out to sea to avoid the calms on the coast of Africa, discovered Brazil.

These discoveries rendered Lisbon and the Portuguese great and enviable in the eyes of European traders. In India they beat down the opposition of the native princes, conquered the coast of Malabar, captured the city of Goa, which, as the residence of their viceroy, became the seat of their Indian empire, and in fifty years rendered themselves masters of the whole trade of the Indian Ocean.

John III., in 1521, succeeded his father Emanuel, who, after establishing the Inquisition in his dominions, admitted the order of Jesuits recently instituted by Ignatius Loyola, became a member of the society, and sent many of the brethren to convert his Eastern subjects. Dying after a reign of thirty-six years, his sen, the famous Don Sebastian, came to the throne in 1557: and about that period the King of Morocco, having been dethroned by an uncle, solicited the aid

of Portugal. Don Sebastian, sailing from Lisbon with a noble armada, and landing with an army in Africa, indulged his military ardor in a crusade against the Moors; but, being defeated and slain, he was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his uncle, Don Henry, a cardinal and archbishop, who, after a reign of two years, died without heirs.

Upon this there occurred a struggle for the crown between Philip II., king of Spain, as heir of Isabel of Portugal, and Don Antonio, prior of Crato, an illegitimate representative of the royal line. But Philip, defeating his rival in an engagement at sea, quietly took possession of the prize, and Don Antonio sought refuge in England. There he pined in pinching poverty till 1589, when, the Invincible Armada having been defeated, Queen Elizabeth, to annoy Philip, brought the Don before the public, boldly declared him a legitimate prince, and prevailed on Parliament to grant a supply for the purpose of placing him on his ancestral throne. An armament of two hundred sail was, with the aid of the Dutch, collected. Sir Francis Drake took the command; the Earl of Essex stole away from his royal mistress's apron-string, and hid himself on board; Don Antonio embarked with royal honors; and the fleet left the shores of England. After an attempt on Corunna, the English landed at Penicke, and marched with little resistance to Lisbon, proclaiming Don Antonio, whom nobody joined. Indeed, every thing went wrong; and though the city was almost undefended, the English, having no artillery, and sickness having thinned their ranks, came to the conclusion of returning home, which they did after plundering a couple of towns.

But though the Portuguese had declined to support the pretensions of Don Antonio, they were by no means contented with their Spanish rulers; and after Portugal had been treated as a province for sixty years the people revolted, and, by a bloodless revolution, placed on the throne the Duke of Braganza, who, as descended from a daughter of Emanuel the Fortunate, began to reign as John IV. Ships were dispatched to expel the Spanish governors from the colonies; Brazil, which had been taken by the Dutch, was recaptured; and Portugal was restored to its rank as an independent state.

When John died, and was succeeded by his son Alphonso, a strange event occurred. The King, being of a weak and profligate character, was deserted by his Queen, who, after taking refuge in a convent, and suing for a divorce, was married to her former husband's brother, who ascended the throne as Pedro II., and reigned in peace for thirty years. By a second marriage Pedro left a son, John V., who took part in the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV., and almost ruined the cause by causing the loss of the battle of Almanza in 1707.

Joseph II. succeeded his father in 1750, and his reign was rendered memorable by a terrible visitation.

The citizens of Lisbon were in the habit of seeking recreation and finding excitement in those public diversions which had too long and too often delighted the inhabitants of the Peninsula. In the principal square of the city, with the King's palace on one side and the river on the other, they gayly assembled to witness, one day bloody fights between ferocious bulls and brave cavaliers, and on another to cheer on the ministers of the Inquisition while they tortured, roasted, and burned helpless heretics. While from the elegant mansions of the nobles, flanked by large gardens, and the meaner houses of the citizens, and the humble dwellings of the children of toil, crowds came forth to feast their eyes and huzza at these barbarous executions, an unexpected calamity laid all in the dust. In November, 1755, an earthquake, which shook Spain and Portugal, reduced Lisbon to a heap of ruins. Ten thousand persons lost their lives; the sad survivors were deprived at once of their habitations and the means of subsistence; and many were forced to take up their abode in the open fields.

Ere Portugal had recovered from this disaster, a dangerous conspiracy was formed; and on a September evening, while the King was driving from his country-seat to the capital, he was dangerously wounded by a shot fired through the back of his carriage, and only saved from assassination by returning to his rural retreat instead of venturing forward to Lisbon. The principal conspirators were seized and executed;

and the Jesuits, whose agency has been suspected in the most diabolical plots recorded in history, being accused on this occasion, were forthwith banished the realm.

At this period, while Portugal was still in the utmost disorder, an army of sixty thousand Spaniards marched to the frontier, and the courts of France and Spain demanded that the King should enter into a league with them for humbling England. But Joseph, who was bound both by national honor and by commercial interest to the English, refused to take part against the ancient ally of his country, and when pressed, declared, "I would rather see the last tile of my palace fall, and have the last drop of my blood spilt, than sacrifice the honor of my crown."

War was immediately declared; the Spanish troops passed the mountains, and several places were taken; but ten thousand English soldiers coming to the rescue, the invaders abandoned their conquests, and evacuated the country before the close of a campaign.

On the death of Joseph, which occurred in 1777, his daughter Maria was proclaimed Queen; and to prevent the crown from falling to a foreign house, she obtained a dispensation from the Pope, and was married to her uncle, Don Pedro. The latter dying in 1786, and the Queen becoming infirm, the functions of government were, in 1792, vested in her son, the Prince of Brazil, who, as Regent, took part in the

wars against the French republic, and maintained a strict alliance with England.

In 1807, however, the Emperor Napoleon signed with Spain a treaty for the partition of Portugal, issued a proclamation to the effect that "the house of Braganza had ceased to reign," and dispatched an army of twenty-eight thousand men under Junot to execute his sentence. In this emergency the Prince Regent resolved on retiring to Brazil.

On the 29th of November, the royal family, to the number of fifteen, including the poor old melancholy Queen, embarked with their attendants, and set sail with little expectation of ever returning; the British ships fired a salute; a crowd mournfully watched the retreating vessels; and as the last sail was disappearing the tread of armed men was heard, and the columns of Junot marched into Lisbon.

Portugal was now in Napoleon's grasp; but the inhabitants, instead of patiently submitting, speedily revolted. An English army under Wellington came to their assistance; the French were driven out of Portugal; and the house of Braganza was, after an interval, recalled.

John IV. thereupon, leaving his son, Don Pedro, to govern Brazil, returned to occupy his ancestral throne; and on his death, in 1828, Don Pedro being Emperor of Brazil, abdicated the crown of Portugal in favor of his daughter, Donna Maria. But her uncle, Don Miguel, who had been nominated Regent, on return-

ing from his travels assumed the title of King, and the reign commenced with troubles. The young Queen was brought for safety to England, till 1834, when the Pretender being driven from the Peninsula, she was declared of age. In 1836 she gave her hand to Prince Ferdinand of Saxe Coburg Gotha; and the next year witnessed the birth of the hopeful youth who now wears the crown of Portugal.

CHAPTER IX.

HISTORY OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

The Empire of the West, which Charlemagne had constructed at so great a cost of blood and treasure, fell to pieces after he had gone to the grave; and the crown of Germany, being separated from that of the Frankish monarchy, was worn by one branch of the Carlovingian race, while the members of another were enacting the part, without exercising the authority, of Kings on the banks of the Seine. But in 911, the various princes of Germany, assuming an attitude of independence, elected Conrad of Franconia to the Imperial throne; and he, after a reign rendered troublous by the inroads of the Hungarians, was succeeded by Henry of Saxony, surnamed the Fowler.

Previous to the time of Charlemagne, the Germans considered it indicative of servitude to live in cities, and argued that even the fiercest animals lost their courage when confined. The prejudice had gradually worn away; and Henry, in order to resist the Hungarian horsemen, induced his subjects to build towns, surrounded them with ramparts, fortified them with

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towers, and enjoined a certain number of his nobles, albeit their favorite occupation was hunting, to reside within the walls.

Otho the Great, son of Henry, becoming Emperor in 938, checked the indefatigable Hungarians, rendered Bohemia tributary to the Imperial crown, forced the Danes to receive baptism, and, on the invitation of the Pope, marched to settle the affairs of Italy. At Rome he was crowned Emperor, dignified with the title of Cæsar Augustus, and invested with the right of nominating the Pope.

The son and grandson of Otho having successively enjoyed the Imperial dignity, it was, on the decease of the latter, conferred on his nephew, Henry of Bavaria, who asserted by arms his claim to the sovereignty of Italy.

Conrad II., Duke of Bavaria, or the Salic, next enjoyed the crown, and rendered fiefs hereditary. By his wife, Gisella of Swabia, he had a son, who succeeded him, in the person of Henry III., surnamed the Black; and he, being a prince of spirit and ability, vindicated his right to create Popes, nominated three in succession, and departing this life in 1056, left an infant son of his own name, under the care of his widow, Agnes of Guienne.

Henry IV. succeeded to the Imperial throne on the veve of a great and momentous struggle, to which he was sacrificed from his youth upward. Being carried off from his widowed mother and intrusted to intriguing prelates, his young mind was deliberately corrupted; and he was encouraged to indulge in vicious courses. He was then commanded by Pope Alexander to appear before the tribunal of the Holy See, and answer for his debaucheries. Henry treated this mandate with contempt; but, soon after, Alexander died, and the papal throne was ascended by Hildebrand, one of the most remarkable men Europe ever saw.

Hildebrand, the son of a carpenter in a little town of Tuscany, had risen to be Prior of Clugny, and in that capacity become conspicuous for austerity and self-denial. On the nomination of Leo IX, to the papal chair, he had persuaded that pious prelate that an Emperor had no right to create a Pope, and even prevailed on Leo's successor to confer on the College of Cardinals the exclusive right of voting at papal elections. For his services to the Church, Hildebrand had successively been appointed Cardinal and Chancellor of the Holy See; and, in 1073, he was elected as Pope by the Sacred College. But before assuming the tiara, he obtained the youthful Emperor's assent, and then assuming the title of Gregory VII. he prepared to throw off his mask, and execute his mission of "pulling down the pride of kings."

Meantime the Saxon subjects of the Emperor, on the verge of revolt, sent deputies to demand an audience of him, and explain their grievances. The deputies found Henry engaged with a game of hazard,

and he contemptuously bade them wait till it was finished. The Saxons indignantly rose in arms under Otho of Nordhim, and in a few hours the Emperor was a fugitive. A Diet, or Assembly of the States, was held to depose him, and bestow the crown on Rodolph of Swabia; but a display of excessive loyalty on the part of the citizens of Worms caused the dissolution of the Diet, and Henry, panting for vengeance, led, in the depth of a severe winter, his gallant army to the Saxon frontier. There, however, he found the insurgent forces of Otho so much superior to his own, that he was under the necessity of capitulating; but at this point, the great feudatories of the empire taking up his quarrel, Henry, with the whole strength of Germany, encountered the rebellious Saxons on the banks of the Unstrut, and, at a fearful cost of life, gained a bloody victory.

Meanwhile, Gregory, having enacted a law forbidding priests to marry, and another precluding kings from the right of investing spiritual dignitaries, sent two legates to cite Henry to appear before him for his delinquencies, in continuing to bestow and sell investitures. This brought the dispute between the Pope and the Emperor to a crisis, for the legates being unceremoniously dismissed, and a Diet held at Worms having deposed Hildebrand, he, in retaliation, excommunicated the Emperor, and released all that prince's subjects from their oath of allegiance.

It was about the opening of the year 1076 that

Henry, returning to Utrecht from a campaign against the revolted Saxons, became aware that he was under the papal ban; and in autumn a Diet held at Tribur decided that, in the event of the Emperor not being received into the bosom of the Church by the following February, a Diet should be held at Augsburg, and his crown given to another. Henry thereupon took up his residence at Spire, where, deserted by his courtiers, he was consoled by his injured, but forgiving wife—the pure and faithful Bertha. When months had worn away, and the Pope still refused to receive him in Italy as a penitent, the proud Emperor, assuming the garb of a pilgrim, and accompanied by Bertha, with their infant child in her arms, undertook, in the midst of a singularly severe winter, to cross the Alps, which, after the utmost danger and fatigue, they almost miraculously accomplished.

About the end of January the Emperor appeared as a humble suppliant at the gate of the castle of Canossa, in whose feudal halls the Pope was enjoying the hospitality of his faithful adherent, Matilda, countess of Tuscany. In the trenches of that Italian fortress, while the Apennines were covered with snow and the mountain streams with ice, Henry, cold, fasting, barefoot, and unclad, save with a scanty woolen garment, stood for three whole days, imploring, with tears of agony and cries for merey, the pity of Hildebrand. As the third day was drawing to a close, the Pope relaxed, admitted the humiliated Emperor to his

presence, and after subjecting the royal victim to the depth of debasement, revoked the papal anathema.

The degradation to which the Emperor had been exposed so galled his subjects, that they meditated a removal of the Imperial crown to the head of his infant son, Conrad; the Saxons having elected Rodolph as their sovereign, defeated Henry in two battles; and Hildebrand once more pronounced against him the sentence of excommunication. But the Emperor had his revenge; for his rival, Rodolph, having fallen in battle by the hand of Godfrey of Bouillon, and the Pope's Norman allies being absent in the East, the banners of Germany were suddenly displayed before the walls of Rome. In the spring of 1084 the besiegers entered the Eternal City. Gregory took refuge in the castle of St. Angelo, and Clement III., a rival pontiff, placed the Imperial crown on Henry's brow. But the return of the warlike Normans caused the Imperial troops to retreat with precipitation; while the Roman citizens rising against his allies, compelled Hildebrand to fly for shelter to Salerno. There, broken with time and trouble, he expired; and his last words were, "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity; therefore I die in exile."

Henry returned to Germany, where he reigned for a while undisturbed by civil war; but Pope Pascal, aspiring to follow in the footsteps of Hildebrand, incited Henry, the Emperor's eldest son, to rebellion; and the youth declaring that he could not acknowledge as king or father a man who was excommunicated, treacherously imprisoned his sire, and assembling a Diet was proclaimed in his stead. Two prelates were sent to demand the regalia from the deposed Emperor; he, receiving them in his symbols of sovereignty, refused; but, laying violent hands on him, they dragged him from his chair, and foreibly divested him of the regal robes. Poor and distressed, Henry escaped from prison, and raised a considerable force to assert his rights; but he died at Liége in 1106, before active operations commenced. His body, denied a resting-place in consecrated ground, was interred in a cave near Spire.

Henry V., though indebted to the Pope for support in his parricidal rebellion, was no sooner established on the Imperial throne, than, reviving the claim of investiture for which his father had contended, he invited the Pope to Germany, that they might settle the dispute. But Pascal having appealed to the King of France, and a fruitless conference having been held at Chalons, Henry entered Italy with eighty thousand men, and after a tedious interview in the church of St. Peter, ordered his guards to take Pascal into custody. The populace of Rome rushed to the Pope's rescue; a battle was fought under the walls; and the carnage was so terrible that the waters of the Tiber were stained with blood. Pascal, taken prisoner, crowned the Emperor, and confirmed the right of in-

vestiture; but hardly had Henry departed when the Pope changed his tune, and pronounced a sentence of excommunication. The Emperor once more entered Rome, chased the Pope to the territories of the Norman princes, and marched to take possession of Tuscany, which Matilda, during Hildebrand's visit to Canossa, had bequeathed to the Church. Meanwhile Pascal died, and the States of the Empire having implored Henry to make peace with the new Pope, a Diet was held at Worms, and the matter accommodated. In 1125 a pestilential disease carried Henry to the grave; and the Imperial dignity, after being enjoyed till 1138 by Lothario II., was bestowed upon Henry's nephew, Conrad, duke of Franconia. A rival appeared in the person of the haughty Duke of Bavaria, whose followers called themselves Guelphs, from his family name; while the adherents of the Emperor adopted the appellation of Ghibelines, from Hieghibelin, the village of which Frederick, the brother of Conrad, was a native. Both parties took up arms, and during the contest a romantic incident occurred at the siege of Weinsberg. The Guelphs in the castle, after being long besieged, yielded on condition that the Duke of Bavaria and his officers should be allowed to retire unmolested; but the noble Duchess, apprehending a breach of faith, stipulated that she and the other women in the eastle should be allowed to come forth and be conducted to a place of safety, with as much as each of them could earry. Conrad, who expected to see the ladies loaded with jewels, gold, and silver, was in no small degree surprised when the Duchess and her fair comrades appeared carrying their gallant husbands; and he was so touched at this display of conjugal affection, that he granted most favorable terms to the Guelphs.

The preaching of St. Bernard, though in French, and therefore unintelligible to the Germans, had nevertheless a powerful effect on the latter; and Conrad, resolving to take part in the second Crusade, embarked with a mighty army: but being betrayed by Greek guides in Asia Minor, his forces were surprised and defeated amidst the defiles of Laodicea. The defeated Emperor, returning to Europe, died in 1151, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick Barbarossa, who was soon involved in a struggle with Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, with the Italian cities, and with another enemy infinitely more formidable than either.

Early in the twelfth century, Nicolas Breakspear, an English mendicant, was strolling about from place to place, when chance directed his vagrant steps to the convent of St. Rufus, in Provence, where the canons received him as a servant. Being afterward admitted as a monk, Nicolas rose to the rank of Abbot. In 1154, by personal merit and good fortune, the Anglo-Saxon beggar was placed in the papal chair as Adrian IV., and before crowning Frederick he insisted that the Emperor should on bended knee kiss his foot, hold his stirrup, and lead his white mule by tho

bridle for nine paces. Frederick reluctantly consented to perform the ceremony at Venice; but purposely mistaking the stirrup, he remarked with a sneer, "I have yet to learn the business of a groom."

The Emperor proved himself an able politician and a stout soldier. To abridge the power of the martial nobles, he followed the example of Louis VI. of France, and conferred charters of community, which enfranchised the people and formed them into corporations.

Going to the third Crusade, this great ruler was drowned in crossing the river Seneff, and succeeded on the Imperial throne by his son, Henry VI., who was speedily involved in Italian wars.

A few years earlier the throne of Sicily had been filled by William, a king of the Guiscard line, who had espoused Joan, a sister of Richard of England, without being blessed with heirs. William, however, had an aunt, named Constance, whose chance of being queen appeared so certain, that Henry, who was at once poor and avaricious, wedded, with great pomp, the princess, though she was thirty-two—an advanced age for a royal Italian bride. But when William died, so strong was the prejudice against a female sovereign, that his illegitimate son Tancred was proclaimed King. Henry prepared to assert his claim, but the lionhearted King of England, on his way to Palestine, arrived at Sicily, and indignant to find his sister deprived at once of her dower and her freedom, com-



FREDERICK BARBAROSSA AND POPE ADRIAN.



menced aggressions. Subsequently, however, Richard concluded with Tancred a league, offensive and defensive, and the Emperor, however he might have dealt with the Sicilian King, had no fancy for playing at the game of carnage with Richard Cœur de Lion. He therefore waited till the English King's departure, and entering Italy, laid siege to Naples in the summer of 1091; but when a fever, which carried off a large portion of his army, prostrated himself, the Emperor, in alarm, raised the siege, and executed an inglorious retreat. But he treasured up his malice, and his day of triumph came.

When Richard had been seized, imprisoned, and forced to pay an enormous ransom, Tancred died, and his son was placed on the throne. Availing himself of the money extorted from Richard, Henry-who had meanwhile incorporated into a regular order the Teutonic knights, originally destined for the service of the sick in Palestine, and built for them a house at Coblentz—announced his resolution of undertaking a Crusade. But instead of going to the Holy Land, he marched into Sicily, the throne of which he seized, after perpetrating revolting cruelties. At length, one of the Norman princes having been tied naked to a chair of red-hot iron, and crowned with a circle of the same burning metal, the Empress in disgust turned against her husband, incited the inhabitants to rebel, and imposed upon him the most humiliating conditions. Henry died at Messina, poisoned, as was said, by his

Italian spouse, and his son, Frederick II., was placed on the Imperial throne; but the German princes, indignant at seeing the crown become hereditary, here a Diet at Cologne, and elected Otho, duke of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion. Civil war arose between the princes, and Otho IV. was crowned at Rome by the Pope; but Frederick allied himself with Philip Augustus, king of France, who at the village of Bovines, in 1214, totally defeated and ruined the rival. Upon this disaster Otho retired to Brunswick, where he became a devotee; while Frederick, having been crowned with unwonted magnificence, afterward undertook a Crusade without the papal sanction, and on his return was excommunicated by Gregory IX. From that period his life was one long and vexatious struggle with the Popes; the Dominican friars preached a holy war against him; a defeat before Parma made him retire to recruit his army in Sicily; and there he died in the year 1251.

His son Conrad, last Emperor of the house of Swabia, assumed the Imperial title; but after his death, in 1254, there was an interregrum of several years, during which Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother of Henry III. of England, spent large sums to secure his election as King of the Romans, which he deemed a certain step to the Imperial dignity; but several of the Electors being favorable to Alphouso, king of Castile, Richard's aspiration was not fulfilled.

At length, in 1274, the German princes, though

impatient of subordination, willing that the throne should be occupied by an emperor whose influence was not such as to excite their jealousy, elected Rodolph of Hapsburg, a Swiss baron; but the King of Bohemia, of whose household Rodolph had been steward, unable to brook the sovereignty of his former inferior, not only refused homage for his fiefs, but seized on the Duchy of Austria. He was soon compelled to give up Austria and do homage for Bohemia and Moravia, but bargained for the latter ceremony being performed in private. To gratify him in this particular, a close pavilion was erected on the small island of Cumberg, and thither came the Bohemian, decked with gold and jewels, while the Emperor appeared in plain and simple habiliments. The Bohemian was nervously anxious to avoid a public scene; but at a critical moment the curtains of the pavilion, falling aside, revealed to thousands of soldiers the proud King on bended knee before his former steward. Incited by a haughty spouse, he renounced his allegiance; but the Emperor taking the field, slew the hapless King in battle, and, to aggrandize the house of Hapsburg, bestowed Austria on his second son, Count Albert.

Adolph of Nassau being next elected Emperor, Count Albert of Austria, incited by Philip IV. of France, and supported by a minority of the Electors, rose in arms, slew Adolph in a battle at Spire, and was soon after crowned as Emperor. Thereupon Pope Boniface summoned him to answer for Adolph's

murder; but a bitter feud arising between the French King and the Pope, the latter found it convenient to court Albert's alliance, and transferred to him the sovereignty of France. However, Albert soon had his hands full at home; for having, as hereditary sovereign of several Swiss cantons, made an attempt to seize the whole of the provinces, the natives combined, and with a small army won successive victories.

The end of Albert was particularly tragical. In 1309 he was walking one day on the banks of the Russ, when his companion, a nephew, whose patrimony he had unjustly retained, drawing his sword, inflicted a mortal wound; and the Electors raised to the throne Henry of Luxembourg, the most renowned knight of an age which boasted of Robert Bruce and Giles de Argentine. The martial Emperor having avenged his predecessor's assassination, fought his way to Rome, imposed a tribute on the Italian States, and died in 1314; poisoned, as was supposed, by emissaries of the Pope. Louis of Bavaria was then elected; and, after a long dispute, defeated and captured Fredcrick the Handsome, of Austria. But successive Popes proved his mortal foes; and though the death of his Austrian competitor left Louis without a rival, Benediet XII., who resided at Avignon, vindictively pursued him to the grave. His subjects were made to choose between their sovereign and the pontiff: discord and disorder loosened the frame-work of society; and the fraternity known as the Friends of God, by the

spread of their doctrines, prepared the way for that religious reformation which was accomplished in the following century.

On the death of Louis, in 1348, the King of Bohemia, favored by the Pope, obtained the vacant throne, with the title of Charles IV. This Emperor issued the celebrated Golden Bull, which limited the number of Electors to seven, because of the seven mortal sins and the candlestick with seven branches. The publication was signalized by an ostentatious ceremony, in which the Electors took their appropriate parts as hereditary officers. The Archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, and Triers, carried the Imperial seals of Germany, Italy, and Gaul; the Duke of Luxembourg, as proxy of the Bohemian King, officiated as cupbearer, and poured wine from a golden flagon into the Emperor's golden cup; the Duke of Saxony, as grand-marshal, appeared with a silver measure of oats; the Elector of Brandenburg presented the Emperor and Empress with water in basins of gold; and the Count Palatine, in presence of the great officers of state, served up the viands in dishes of the most precious metal.

The Emperor Maximilian, known as the Moncyless, described Charles as "the pest of the empire," and not without cause; for he first dissipated the Imperial territories in Italy, and in 1376, to secure the election of his son, Wenceslaus, as King of the Romans, he promised each of the Electors a hundred thousand

crowns. Unable to pay so large a sum, he alienated the ample Imperial domain which stretched along the banks of the Rhine from Basil to Cologne, and dying in 1378, was succeeded by the son for whom he had made so great a sacrifice.

Wenceslaus proved himself the most cruel and vicious of mankind. He is said to have walked the streets with an executioner to put to death such persons as incurred his dislike, to have drowned in the Moldau a monk who refused to reveal the confessions of his wife, the Queen of Bohemia, and even to have, in an hour of intoxication, ordered his cook to be roasted alive. The tyrant was, in consequence of his gross incapacity, deprived of the Imperial crown, which was given to Robert, the Count Palatine; and he, in his turn, was succeeded by Sigismund, brother of Wenceslaus, and King of Hungary.

Christendom was at that period scandalized by the great schism of the West, produced by the cardinals having elected three rival popes-each considering himself endowed with all the attributes which Hildebrand had claimed for the Viear of Christ; and Sigismund, eager to settle the controversy, visited England to consult Henry V. But finding that here wholly occupied with French wars, the Emperor returned, and in 1418 summoned the Council of Constance. which settled the dispute by degrading the three rivals and electing Martin V.

The new pontiff was installed by an imposing cere-

mony. Arrayed in pontifical vestments, he mounted a richly-caparisoned mule, which was led by the reins, with due solemnity, by the Emperor and the Elector of Brandenburg. A magnificent canopy was held over the Pope's head by four Counts; several princes walked around; and forty thousand equestrians took part in the procession. The Council then went to more serious work, and summoned John Huss, a disciple of Wicliffe. Huss, after defending the articles of his faith, was declared a heretic, stripped of his sacerdotal habit, crowned with a mitre of paper, on which were painted three devils, and condemned to be burned with his writings. The victim died praising God, and was followed to the stake by Jerome of Prague.

When Sigismund went down to his tomb in 1436, his son-in-law, Albert of Austria, who inherited the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, was raised to the Imperial throne; and after dividing Germany into six circles, each regulated by a Diet, he was succeeded by his cousin, Frederick III. At the beginning of this long and languid reign, while war was raging between the Turks and Hungarians, John Guttenberg invented at Strasburg the art of printing, which brought into operation the power of the pen; and that potent weapon being, on the revival of learning, directed first against spiritual, and then against temporal despotism, materially influenced those revolutions which have gradually removed ancient landmarks, and changed the face of Continental Europe.

Maximilian I, succeeded his brother Frederick in 1493, and, to terminate the calamities created by private feuds, instituted, at the stately city of Frankfort, the Imperial Chamber, consisting of a president appointed by the Emperor, and sixteen judges, chosen by him and the States; and he prevailed on the Diet to consent to the Aulic Council as the Emperor's Court, and without appeal. After wearing the crown with honor, and exhibiting much enthusiasm for science and literature, Maximilian, in 1519, disappeared from the stage of affairs on the eve of great events; and his grandson Charles, the juvenile King of Spain, who inherited Austria, became a candidate for the Imperial dignity. In this he was opposed by Francis I., whose embassadors impressed upon the Electors the necessity of showing that the empire was not an heir-loom in the house of Austria; and the Electors, with whom it was a rule not to select any prince already occupying an important position, caring little for either candidate, laid the diadem at the feet of Frederick of Saxony, a man of great prudence and popularity. Frederick, however, declined the distinction, and recommended them to choose the King of Spain, who was accordingly elected on 28th June, 1520, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in the following October.

Thirty-seven years before that important event, the wife of a miner, named Luther (a worthy, studious, and stubborn man), had, in the little town of Eisleben, become the mother of a boy, who was named

Martin, from having been born on St. Martin's Eve. Removed in infancy to Mansfeld, on the banks of the Vipper, young Luther, while standing by his father's forge, or accompanying his mother to gather fagots in the forest, indulged in the anticipation of becoming a scholar, and being sent, after some preparatory training, to Erfurt, he excited by his intellectual powers the admiration of the whole university. One day, while reading keenly in the library, he came upon a Latin copy of the Bible, the pages of which he perused with breathless interest; and resolving upon a monastic life, he entered the Convent of St. Augustine at the age of twenty-one. After spending three years in the cloister, Luther accepted a professorship in the University of Wittemberg, which Frederick, the Elector of Saxony, had founded. And in 1512 being sent as envoy to Rome, where Pope Julius then reigned, and his monastic illusions vanishing into air, he commenced his career as a Reformer, and was excommunicated by Leo X., who did not like his hunting, shooting, and fishing to be disturbed by heretics. Luther retaliated by publishing the "Babylonish Captivity;" and the book being burned, he, in 1520, publicly committed to the flames the Pope's bull and decretals.

The popular spirit in Germany was in Luther's favor; for though, from the days of Louis of Bavaria, the Emperors had acknowledged the ascendency of the Popes, the people had exhibited an increasing dislike to the yoke of Rome, and in 1512 the populace of the

Rhenish provinces had displayed their discontent by forming the League of Shoes. Maximilian, it appears, had not manifested any dislike to the professors of the new faith: but Charles V. had inherited enough of Spanish bigotry to decide his opinions, and in 1521 he summoned Luther to appear before the Diet of Worms, and answer for his doctrines. The bold Reformer soon arrived from Wittemberg in a wagon, defended himself with great spirit, and afterward escaped into Saxony, where, secured by his friend the Elector in the fortress of Wartburg, while branded by the Pope as "a viper of hell," he commenced his translation of the Bible. And matters did not rest there, for the mind of Europe was in agitation.

While, in England, Henry was attacking alike the Catholics and Protestants; while, in Scotland, Cardinal Beaton was feasting his eyes with the burning of hereties; while, in France, the brave and gloryloving Francis was sullying his fame by consenting to the villages of the Vaudois being converted into a desert waste; the Emperor Charles was by no means indifferent to the interest of the Romish Church within the Imperial dominions. And when freed by the death of his impetuous rival from apprehensions of war, he gained, at Muhlberg, a victory over the Confederates at Smalcalde, which placed the venerable Frederick of Saxony in his power. Strangely, at that crisis, the Lutherans turned for aid to Henry II. of France, who, though bent on persecution at home, on certain conditions proclaimed himself their champion. But ere his services could be rendered, Maurice of Saxony, to whom Charles had given the Electorate, preferring to be a chief of the Protestants to figuring as the Emperor's creature, after much dissimulation marched on Inspruck, and almost succeeded in capturing Charles, who, after escaping over the Alps in a litter, sick and solitary, signed the Convention of Passau, which was converted into a definitive peace in 1552—the era of religious liberty in Germany.

At the close of this war, weary of the world, the great Emperor, having previously abdicated the Spanish throne in favor of his son Philip, resigned the Imperial crown to his brother Ferdinand, king of the Romans. After a reign of eight years, that prince was succeeded by his son, Maximilian II., who died in 1596, while preparing to support his election as King of Poland.

Rodolph II., son of Maximilian, was so entirely devoted to the study of astronomy and astrology that he saw with indifference his dominions usurped by his brother Matthias, who, succeeding to the Empire in 1612, procured the election of his cousin Ferdinand to the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia. Both nations revolted, and the Hungarians were appeased; but Ferdinand was a pupil of the Jesuits, and the Bohemian Protestants, to whom he was obnoxious, advanced in arms to the gates of Vienna; and, while Matthias was on his dying bed, commenced that ter-

rible conflict known in history as the Thirty Years' War.

Ferdinand, though elevated to the Imperial throne, was sternly rejected by the Bohemians, who offered their crown to Frederick, the Elector Palatine, and son-in-law of the first James of England. Frederick, proceeding to Prague, accepted the gift, but rashly, as it soon appeared; for in November, 1620, the Imperialists coming thither, under Tilly, inflicted a defeat, which made the Elector and his fair spouse, whom men called the Queen of Hearts, fly to the Hague, while their friends surrendered town after town in the Palatinate to the Italian general Spinola. The Duke of Bavaria, ere long, took possession of the Electorate; and its hereditary sovereign, homeless and houseless, in spite of the alliance of the King of Denmark, remained a pensioner on Dutch bounty at the Hague.

The tyranny of Ferdinand speedily led to the confederacy of Leipsie, of which Gustavus Adolphus, the heroic King of Sweden, was chief. After bearing the banner of Protestantism in triumph through Germany, that Lion of the North fell in the battle of Lutzen, and the fortunes of the Elector seemed desperate. But when the Emperor had closed his checkered career, and been succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., and when Germany was suffering from famine and poverty, the consequence of the long war, the Protestants, with the aid of France, found matters assuming a

more favorable aspect. Turenne won the battle of Sommerhausen; Wrangel captured Prague; and the great Condé's victory at Lens, where the Archduke Leopold, brother of the Emperor, had his army routed, compelled Ferdinand to consent to the Peace of Westphalia, by which the Palatine family were restored and religious equality decreed.

The peace was grateful to the inhabitants after their long struggle. Their losses were gradually repaired, their lands cultivated, and their towns rebuilt; but on the death of Ferdinand, and the accession of his unamiable son, Leopold, in 1658, the Hungarians rose in insurrection, made Tekeli their prince, and called in the Turks to their aid. The reigning Sultan, in 1683, raised the most formidable force ever sent against Christendom; and Lorrain, the Imperial general, retired before the Turkish crescent. Leopold and his household fled from Vienna; two-thirds of the inhabitants followed; the city was besieged; and it would have fallen but for the timely arrival of John Sobieski, king of Poland, who defeated the invaders and took the famous standard of Mohammed, which was sent as a present to the Pope. Fearful was the vengeance which Leopold now took on the Hungarians. A scaffold, erected in the market-place of Eperies, stood there so many months, that the executioners were weary of victims. At length, the Hungarian nobles having been summoned to Vienna, declared the crown hereditary: the States at Presburg con-

firmed that decree; and the Emperor's son, Joseph, at the age of nine, was acknowledged as King of Hungary.

When Charles, king of Spain, breathed his last, without heirs, and Louis XIV. sent his grandson Philip V. to Madrid, Leopold, whose mother was daughter of Philip III., claimed the Spanish throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles. England, as has been stated, supported the Austrian claim, and the war was still raging, when, in 1705, Leopold dying, was succeeded on the Imperial throne by his son Joseph, who seized Mantua and Milan, assailed the temporal power of the Pope, and made every thing bend to his power. In the midst of his suecesses he expired, in 1711, and Charles VI., whom the Allies were attempting to place on the Spanish throne, having obtained the Imperial crown, the Treaty of Utrecht terminated the War of Succession. To that treaty Charles at first refused his assent; but when a French army under Marshal Villars had passed the Rhine, he acceded to the views of the Allies, and obtained Milan, Naples, and the Netherlands.

One of the greatest and most successful eaptains of that age was Prince Eugène. His father being a member of the house of Savoy, and his mother a nieee of Cardinal Mazarin, he applied to Louis XIV. first for an abbey, and then for a regiment. The Grand Monarch, little understanding the applicant's character, refused in both cases. Prince Eugène, taking service with the Emperor, was associated with the illustrious Marlborough in those brilliant victories that have made the name of the "handsome Englishman" immortal, had the distinction of expelling the French from Italy, and in 1717, undertook the memorable siege of Belgrade, the strongest eastle in Europe. Surrounded in his camp by a hundred and fifty thousand Turks, he routed them with immense slaughter, and captured the place, which remained in possession of Austria for twenty-two years.

Charles, anxious that the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria should be settled on his daughter, the celebrated Maria Theresa, obtained the assent of the European powers to a Pragmatic Sanction. But hardly had his eyes closed, in 1740, when events verified the observation of Prince Eugène: "The best guarantee in this case would be an army of a hundred thousand men." Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, claimed Silesia, captured Breslau, after winning the battle of Molwitz; while Charles of Bavaria, whom Louis XV. had caused to be crowned as King of Bohemia, was chosen Emperor, with the title of Charles VII. But Maria Theresa, though deserted by her allies, was a woman of too high spirit to be daunted by adverse circumstances. She convoked the States of Hungary, and taking her infant son in her arms, addressed the assembly in Latin, the idiom of the States-"I place in your hands," she said, "the daughter and son of your kings. They look to you for succor, and depend on you for safety."

The Hungarian nobles, too chivalrous to resist such an appeal from such lips, drew their glittering swords, and exclaimed with one accord, "We will die for out Queen," and levied an army which brought her enemies to reason. At length, after an English army had won the battle of Dettingen, and Charles VII. had been removed by death, peace was restored, and the husband of the popular Queen was raised, in 1745, to the Imperial throne, with the title of Francis I. But, in 1756, the Seven Years' War breaking out between France and England, Maria Theresa, regretting the cession of Silesia to the Prussian King, flattered the vanity of Madame Pompadour, and secured the aid of France. The skill and intrepid courage of Frederick prevailed, and after seven bloody campaigns he signed a peace with the Empress-Queen.

On the death of his father, Joseph, the son of Maria Theresa, ascended the Imperial throne, and issued some oppressive edicts against the Netherlands, which his grandfather had acquired at the close of the Spanish war. The inhabitants had been contented under the rule of Maria Theresa, but revolted against Joseph's tyranny; and terrible was the punishment. Their houses were ruthlessly entered at midnight; women and their infants were slain with one bayonet; and their husbands were, without trial, carried off prisoners to Vienna on the banks of the Danube. These cruel-

ties prompted the Netherlands to declare themselves forever released from Austrian sway, and to treat every offer of indemnity with contempt.

This Emperor's conduct was otherwise praiseworthy; he abolished the system of torture, with servitude and villanage, granted a liberal toleration in religion, and was easy and affable in communicating with his subjects. He was succeeded in 1790 by his brother Leopold, who, during his brief reign, restored tranquillity in the Netherlands, and was hesitating about the course he should pursue toward revolutionary France when he died, in 1792.

Francis II. then succeeded his father, and took a conspicuous part in the struggle, as has already been related. But in 1806, when fourteen princes of Germany formed the Confederation of the Rhine, and acknowledged the victorious Napoleon as their protector, Francis, finding himself deprived of all his honors as head of the Germanic body, abandoned the ancient title, and styled himself Emperor of Austria.

When Napoleon, after making the kings of the earth bow down before his mighty energies, fell in 1814, Vienna, the capital of the new empire, was the scene of one of the most important assemblies of modern days. There the Emperors of Austria and Russia, the King of Prussia, and many of the Germanic princes, met the representatives of England and France, to establish the territorial limits of the Continental States upon recognized principles of international policy.

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That was the celebrated Congress of Vienna; and while withholding the Netherlands from Austria, it restored Lombardy, and added thereto all the ancient possessions of the far-famed Venetian republic. The Germanic Confederation was likewise dealt with, and something done toward harmonizing the interests of the independent states into a nationality.

The Emperor Francis died in 1835, after an eventful reign of forty-three years, leaving his dominions to his son Ferdinand, under the auspices of the profound Metternich. But during the revolutionary epoch of 1848, while the Hungarians were in arms to assert their independence, he abdicated; and his brother declining to accept the Imperial crown, it came to the son of the latter, Francis Joseph, who thereupon assumed the titles of Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary.

CHAPTER X.

HISTORY OF ITALY.

WHEN the arms of Pepin and Charlemagne had given the Popes a territorial sovereignty, added a sceptre to their keys, and enriched them with the spoils of the Roman Emperors; and when Hildebrand, and other pontiffs of strong will and immutable purpose, had by their spiritual authority rendered themselves independent of the German Cæsars, they became ambitious of figuring as considerable temporal princes. But when, in the fourteenth century, the Popes removed their residence from the city of the Seven Hills to Avignon, the inhabitants of Rome, in 1347, expelled the nobles, established a democratic government, and elected Nicolas Rienzi tribune of the people. This soon came to an end; but the turbulence of the multitude, and the independent spirit of the patricians, still further diminished the papal authority in the Ecclesiastical States.

Though the patrimony of St. Peter was the worstgoverned section of Europe, though the glory of the Eternal City had departed, the northern and southern provinces of Italy were studded with fair and flourishing cities, the capitals of small states, each of which possessed sovereign and independent jurisdiction.

Venice, Pisa, and Genoa, by furnishing transports for the Crusaders, and contracting for their military stores, had contrived to secure by commercial enterprise the chief advantage arising from their successes; and when these cities became enriched by commerce, the German Emperors were glad to grant them large immunities for sums of money. As soon as the citizens felt their own importance, they endeavored to render themselves masters of the territory around their walls, attacked the feudal barons, subjected them to municipal power, and compelled them, as well as the prelates, to reside within the walls for a certain period of each year. Gradually the nobles became citizens from choice, abandoned their ancient castles, acknowledged themselves burgesses, and applied their energies to trade. The Emperors had anciently a palace in each Italian city; but at length the citizens would not brook their presence; and when the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, alarmed at the encroachments on his authority, attempted to restore the Imperial jurisdiction, the free cities of Italy stood together, and had their privileges confirmed by the Treaty of Constance, 1183.

Venice, which was foremost in wealth and power among the Italian cities, has been described as a republic of nobles with a populace of slaves. Up to 999, the State paid the tribute of a mantle of cloth

of gold, as a mark of vassalage to the Emperor of Constantinople, and within a century from that time she was rich and influential. At a later period the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa attempted to make the Venetians lower their tone; but they obtained over him a naval victory, and the Pope, attended by the Senate, sailing into the Adriatic, on whose small isles the city stands, threw in a ring as a token of gratitude and affection. This ceremony was afterward performed annually, under the notion of Venice espousing the Adriatie. Regarding their city as mistress of the sea, and one of the wonders of the world, the Venetians became proud and haughty; even the greatest monarchs could not vie with the principal citizens in the magnificence of their palaces, the richness of their dress, the elegance of their furniture, and their splendid style of living. Their credit was so high, that while the Emperor Maximilian's utter want of credit procured him the epithet of the Moneyless, and while the King of France was borrowing money at the enormous interest of forty per cent., the Venetians could raise as much as they pleased at an eighth of that rate.

Though the form of government lodged all power in the hands of an oligarchy, industry and trade were encouraged; and the natives were employed in manufactures and navigation, while the defense of the State was intrusted to condottieri, or the leaders of mercenary bands.

Florence possessed a constitution much more democratical, and was remarkable for the frequency and violence of its internal dissensions. The institutions of Florence directed the attention of the inhabitants to mercantile pursuits, and chief among its merchant princes ranked the Medici family, whose founder, Cosmo, had acquired vast wealth by trading with the East. His son was Lorenzo the Magnificent, under whose auspices the republic attained a high degree of splendor; and a branch of the family afterward obtained the sovereignty of Tuscany.

Milan, with Genoa, was long subject to the House of the Visconti, who had risen into importance during the protracted quarrel between the Guelphs and Ghibelines. By a resolute adherence to the Emperor, one of them was distinguished by the title of Duke of Milan; and aspiring to a royal bride, he sought the hand of a daughter of John, king of France, who consented to gratify the Italian's ambition for a hundred thousand florins. The money was paid, the marriage celebrated, and the Duke's daughter Valentine subsequently became the wife of her cousin, the Duke of Orleans. Thus, when the male line of Visconti became extinct in 1447, the Duke of Orleans was their heir. But other claimants started up. The King of Naples demanded the duchy in right of a will made by the last Duke; the Emperor contended, that as the Visconti were extinct, the fief should revert to him as feudal superior; and the people of

Milan, wishing to be as free as their neighbors, declared against any foreign master, and constituted a republic. As usual in such cases, a hero soon appeared to vanquish all opposition by his talent and energy.

Somewhat earlier, a peasant, bearing the name of Sforza, had raised himself by genius and valor to a high place among those adventurous warriors who sold the blood of their followers for foreign pay; and he had been succeeded in his command by a natural son, Francis, whose courage well qualified him for the post. Francis Sforza had taken to wife an illegitimate daughter of the last Duke of Milan, and though her title was rather defective, the political capacity and martial power of her husband overcame all other considerations, and he seated himself firmly on the ducal throne.

The only feudal monarchy in Italy was that of Naples, founded in the eleventh century by the Norman Guiscard, whose title passed with the Empress Constance to the great house of Swabia. Though Conrad, son of the Emperor Frederick, maintained his claims with an army, the Pope, in order to make Naples a fief of the Church, after hawking the crown all over Europe, offered it to Richard, king of the Romans; but the sagacious Englishman declined the gift with the memorable observation—"You might as well say, 'I make you a present of the moon; go up to the sky and bring it down.'" Henry III., how-

ever, accepted it for his second son, Edmund, who assumed the empty title, but lacked funds to seize the real prize. Thereupon (Conrad having meantime been murdered by his illegitimate brother Manfred, who proclaimed himself King), the Pope presented the crown to St. Louis's brother, Charles of Anjou, a cruel and ambitious prince, who had espoused Beatrice, countess of Provence. Charles, entering Italy, defeated and killed Manfred at Gaudella in 1266, assumed the crown, and put to death Conradin, the heir of the Swabian line: but when on the scaffold, the youth declared Peter of Aragon his rightful heir, and, throwing a glove among the crowd, desired that it might be taken to that prince, as a symbol by which he had conveyed his title.

Charles now tyrannized without restraint; and a conspiracy was formed against him, to aid which the King of Aragon sent a fleet. At the sound of the vesper bell, on Easter Sunday, 1282, the populace of Palermo rose, massacred the French in the streets of that town, and through all Sicily. Charles invoked the aid of his nephew, Philip of France; and from that time, for two centuries, the Princes of Anjou and Aragon contended for the throne; but at length the latter seemed so securely seated, that they transmitted the crown to an illegitimate branch.

The house of Anjou, however, still existed, and their right was formally conveyed by the celebrated King René to Louis XI. of France; but that crafty monarch, while taking possession of the territories of the house of Anjou, wisely abstained from meddling with their imaginary title. His less prescient son, Charles VIII., eager for adventure, was dreaming of conquest, when Ludovico Sforza, surnamed the Moor, designing to supplant his nephew on the throne of Milan, applied for aid from France, and, without disclosing his own views, prevailed on the youthful sovereign to march into Italy. Accordingly, in the autumn of 1494, Charles appeared south of the Alps, and carried all before him. One king of Naples died of fright; his successor, in terror, abdicated in favor of his son; and the latter, in the utmost alarm, sought safety in the island of Ischia. But while the invader was wasting his time in Naples, and regaling his fancy with the anticipation of marvelous exploits in the East, the Italian States combined with the Emperor Maximilian for his expulsion. The French, recognizing no hope, and resolving on a retreat, secured their object by the victory at Fornova; and their sovereign went home a sadder and a wiser man.

When the French first marched as friends into the city of Milan, King Charles met in the citadel the young Duke, so exhausted by debaucheries that his reason had well-nigh departed, and so languid that suspicions were entertained of his uncle having administered poison. Soon after he sunk into an untimely grave, and Ludovico seized the duchy: but, at the same time, the Duke of Orleans claimed it as heir to Valentine Visconti; and no sooner was he seated on the throne of France, as Louis XII., than he appeared with an army to vindicate his title. Sforza, unable to cope with such a competitor, sought refuge with his son-in-law, the Emperor Maximilian; while Louis, arrayed in the ducal robes, triumphantly entered Milan. Ludovico, being betrayed by a Swiss in his pay, was shut up in the Castle of Loches; and it was now that the King of Naples, alarmed by the menaces of the French monarch, entreated the alliance of Ferdinand, king of Spain. The latter sent to his aid Gonsolvo de Cordova, and that "Great Captain" having speedily arrived, introduced his soldiers into the various fortresses, and then informed the Neapolitan Prince that a treaty of partition had been agreed to between the Kings of France and Spain. This piece of treachery accomplished, Gonsolvo took advantage of a quarrel to drive the French out of their division of Naples.

In 1497, when a vacancy occurred in the pontifical chair, there was residing at Rome a Cardinal named Rodrigo Borgia, who led a life flagrantly dissolute. Nevertheless he aspired to the papal throne, and took sure means to obtain it. Four mules, laden with silver, were, in the face of day, driven to the palace of the most influential Cardinal: the others were bribed, each at his price; and Borgia became Pope with the title of Alexander VI. To aggrandize his bastard progeny, the new Pope gave his eldest son the duchy

of Benevento; but the younger brother Cæsar, an Archbishop, and one of the handsomest men of his age, not relishing the grant, after causing his brother to be assassinated, had his body thrown into the Tiber; and he next ordered the execution of his sister's husband. Cæsar achieved the conquest of Romagna, captured Urbino, and was occupied with great schemes, when an aecident threw all into confusion. The Pope invited to a sumptuous feast a Cardinal, whom he ordered to be poisoned with a box of sweetmeats, but the wary guest, receiving a hint, dexterously contrived that his host should be the victim; and the poison not only earried off Alexander, but being partaken of by his son, caused such a stupor and lassitude in that "hero of crime," that, incapable of exertion, he lost the fruits of multitudinous intrigues. Stripped of his acquisitions, and seized at Naples, Cæsar was sent by Gonsolvo a prisoner to Spain.

Venice was at this period an object of terror to her Italian neighbors, as well as of envy to the feudal potentates of Europe; and Julius II., a warlike, energetic, and resolute pontiff, resolving to humble her pride, formed for that purpose the celebrated League of Cambray with Louis, Ferdinand, and Maximilian. The Venetians, in the utmost alarm, abandoned their Continental territories, and sought refuge in the city; their army was destroyed by the French in the battle of Agnadello, and the conquest was achieved as far as the Adda; when the Pope, veer-

ing round, treacherously hounded on the other Leaguers against the French. Louis, enraged, declared war against Julius, and had a medal struck with this legend—Perdam Babylonis nomen; but his Queen, Anne of Brittany, entertaining serious scruples in regard to a war with the Pontiff, caused operations to be carried on faintly; and after gaining the battle of Ravenna, Louis, whose finances were exhausted, found it necessary to conclude treaties of peace, which deprived the French of every place in Italy except the Castle of Milan.

Two years elapsed, and with the exception of the Emperor Maximilian, the more prominent personages, who had practiced against each other that Italian policy which Machiavel has developed in the "Prince," had disappeared from the stage. Louis had been succeeded by his cousin Francis, Pope Julius by Leo X., Ferdinand the Catholic by his grandson Charles, and Ludovico the Moor by his son, when an army of Frenchmen, guided by their impetuous King, descended the Alps, won the battle of Marignano, and took possession of Milan. But, in 1521, the French were expelled by the forces of Charles V.; the second expedition of Francis ended in his captivity; and Andrea Doria, the Genoese admiral, offended with the haughtiness of the French King, placed Genoa, with its marble palaces, under the Emperor's protection. At length, by the Treaty of Crespy, Francis renounced his claims to Naples and Milan; and all that his impoverished kingdom retained of their French acquisitions was the person of Catherine de Medici.

The Emperor Charles was crowned at Rome as King of Italy, which henceforth, though subject to foreign masters, ceased to be the battle-field of Europe. Milan enjoyed some measure of prosperity under the Spaniards; but Venice fell gradually from her high estate; and the resources of Naples were allowed to lie dormant.

The Treaty of Utrecht, which, in 1713, gave to the Austrian princes Milan and the kingdom of Naples, dismembered from the Spanish monarchy, established their overwhelming influence in the Italian peniusula; but in 1734, Don Carlos, son of Philip of Spain, invading Italy, recovered Naples and Sicily for the house of Bourbon.

Time passed on, and the marvelous successes of Napoleon overthrew all arrangements. The victory of Marengo placed Italy in his power; and going thither in 1804, he gratified his ambitious longings and vague presentiments by placing the iron crown of the Lombard Sovereigns on his head, and in adding the title of King of the Romans to that of Emperor of the French.

Declaring that the Sicilian Bourbons had forfeited the crown of Naples, Napoleon bestowed it on his brother Joseph; and when the latter was proclaimed King of Spain, the Neapolitan sceptre was handed over to his brother-in-law Murat, who was seized and shot for an attempt to effect a landing with arms in his hands after Waterloo.

The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, restored the Bourbons to the throne of Naples, bestowed Tuscany on the Archduke Ferdinand, placed Genoa in possession of the King of Sardinia, re-established the Papal States, and, while restoring to Austria the Lombard dominions, gave her, in addition, the ancient possessions of Venice on both sides of the Adriatic. Though the Italians, amidst their beautiful vales and lofty mountains, indulging in dreams of restoring grandeur and independence to their rich soil, have since striven to throw off the power of Austria and Sardinia, the arrangements made at that great assembly of European potentates have not been permanently disturbed.

CHAPTER XI.

HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

When the grave had closed over the Emperor Rodolph, founder of the house of Austria, his less popular son, Albert, aspired, as hereditary sovereign of several Swiss cantons, to erect the various provinces into a principality for one of his children. The inhabitants, a Gothic race, offered so resolute a resistance, that the Imperial potentate, in revenge, appointed them rulers characterized by their tyrannical spirit; and among these none was more unreasonably despotic then Geisler, the Governor of Ury.

In the market-place of Altorf, the hat of Geisler was placed aloft on a pole, and in the exercise of unbridled power he ordered every passer-by to bow down before it, on pain of death. He soon, however, found that there were in the canton men bold enough to defy his utmost wrath; and conspicuous among the recusants was a peasant—the famous William Tell. For refusing to perform the ridiculous homage that brave man was forthwith sentenced to be hanged; but he was subsequently promised pardon on the cruel condition of striking with an arrow, at a given dis-

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tance, an apple placed on the head of his son. The trial was accepted; the boy was brought out, and Tell, who was a most expert archer, managed to cleave the apple without mjuring the lad. At that moment, the Austrian governor, perceiving that his victim had a second arrow, inquired with eagerness for what purpose it was intended; and Tell answered with the frank sincerity of his country, "It was to have killed you if I had killed my child." Enraged at such a reply, the governor ordered the patriot to be fettered and conveyed in a boat to the dungeon of his castle; but a storm coming on, the boatmen declared that they should inevitably be lost, unless Tell, the most skillful navigator on the lake, was intrusted with the helm. Geisler then ordered him to be unbound; and the captive peasant, steering for a point of land, since known as the Rock of Tell, leaped ashore, and made for the mountains. Soon after this escape he shot the obnoxious governor; and, under the impulse of his daring courage, the Swiss prepared to throw off the Austrian voke.

Twelve patriotic men, indignant at the cruelties perpetrated, vowed to emancipate their soil; and, in 1308, they surprised the Austrian governors of the cantons of Schewitz, Ury, and Underwalden, conducted them to their frontiers, and made them swear an oath never to serve against Switzerland. The three cantons having bravely won their freedom, were joined by the other ten, and thus sprung into existence



WILLIAM TELL.



the Helvetic Republic. The Swiss fought with heroic patriotism for their national independence; and, in 1315, the battle of Morgaret, where sixteen hundred Swiss defeated twenty thousand Austrians while the latter were attempting to cross the mountains, fully established their liberties. They speedily effected a change in the condition of their formerly depressed country; the neglected soil was carefully cultivated, the barren heath converted into a fertile plain, and the craggy rocks decked with fruitful vines.

Victorious against terrible odds over the Imperial forces, the Swiss had next to contend, limited as were their resources, face to face with the martial array of Charles the Rash, duke of Burgundy. That haughty personification of feudal pride, baffled in his ambitious wish to be recognized as a king by the Emperor, attempted to wrench Lorraine from René, its last sovereign; and the latter solicited the aid of the Helvetic Republic. Nor were the Swiss insignificant allies. During their long struggle for freedom, they had learned much from experience. Having to encounter heavily-armed cavalry, they gave their soldiers breastplates and helmets as defensive armor, with long spears, halberts, and heavy swords, as weapons of offense, and ranged them in battalions, so deep and close, that the men-at-arms could make no impression

The Swiss now poured from their mountains, and met the Duke's army at Neuss, where the fiery mag-

nate sustained a bloody defeat; and, though abandoned by the King of France, who had appeared as their ally, they were again successful in the fields of Granson and Morat. The decisive engagement took place in 1477, before Nanci, where the shield of Burgundy was broken, her chivalry routed, and her Duke slain.

The Swiss having thus proved their warlike prowess, became famous as mercenaries to Louis XI, and his successors, and signalized their valor in the Italian But Swiss peasants, allured to the banks of the Po and the Rhone, lost much of their primitive simplicity, while foreign intrigues were creating discord in the pastoral hills and valleys of their native country.

While affairs were in this untoward condition. Ulric Zwingle was born, in 1484, of an ancient race of Alpine herdsmen in high esteem among the mountaineers of Tockenburg; and, evincing marks of superior intelligence, he was destined to the priestly office. After narrowly escaping the precincts of a convent, Zwingle became, in his twenty-second year, pastor of Glaris; and in 1515, having previously protested against his countrymen selling their swords for foreign pay, fought, sword in hand, for Rome, in the battle of Marignano.

The Reformation was just dawning in Switzerland, when, in 1518, Zwingle was elected as preacher at Zurich, where he speedily distinguished himself by the enunciation of religious doctrines which had all the charm of novelty to people who had long been kept in darkness. In 1520, the civil power in that canton interfered to fulfill the work of the Reformation; and the monks were enjoined to preach only what they found in the Old and New Testaments. But while the truth was gaining ground in Zurich, the warlike canton of Lucerne rushed to the rescue of the imperiled Church of Rome; and a Diet, held at Baden, urged the confederated provinces to extirpate the new religion. The Swiss, thereupon, seemed to rise as one man against the Gospel; at Lucerne Zwingle was burned in effigy; at Friburg his writings were consigned to the flames; and in other districts the populace clamored for his being summarily dealt with. Nevertheless, the Reformation gained ground; and Farel, a Frenchman, driven from his native soil, decided the western cantons in favor of the new faith. The Franciscans, intrusted with the sale of pardons and indulgences in Switzerland, and guilty of the utmost rapacity, were attacked by Zwingle at Zurich; but, in 1531, that intrepid reformer, placing himself with characteristic courage, at the head of a Protestant army, fell before the victorious Papists, who quartered and burned his lifeless corpse. Subsequently, John Calvin took up his residence at Geneva, and under the inspiration of that Reformer's haughty gloom and mighty intellect, the city on Lake Leman became the asylum for the persecuted, and the cradle of revolt 372

against half the powers of Europe. The result of the struggle was, that about one half of Switzerland embraced the doctrines of the Reformation, while the other adhered to the Church of Rome.

By the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, the republic of Switzerland was declared to be a sovereign state, exempt from the jurisdiction of the empire; but, as time rolled on, new perils arose. After a peace that had endured for ages, war was declared by the French Republic, in 1798, against the confederated cantons, and the latter levied an army of twenty-six thousand men. A French general forthwith entered the territory of Berne, displaced the ruling families, possessed himself of the treasures of the state, and proposed a new constitution, which was designed to change the government from a federal to a united republic. larger cantons, trusting to gain an ascendency under the new system, were inclined to acquiesce; but the smaller states, attached to their time-tried institutions. assembled in arms, appointed Paravicini as their leader, and drawing the French general into an ambuscade, by a signal defeat arrested his career. This victory enabled the Swiss to conclude a treaty, whereby the small states agreed to accept the new constitution, provided their internal administration continued as before. But the canton of Underwalden refused to agree to the terms, and thither was marched a large body of French troops, accompanied by artillery.

The hardy peasantry were not to be daunted. On the 8th of September, 1798, began a battle which lasted till the following evening. The Swiss, ardent for liberty and warm with patriotism, fought with desperate valor. Brandishing clubs and spears, they encountered the muskets and bayonets of the invaders; and answered the thunder of artillery with huge fragments of rock. Vain, however, was the stern resistance of the gallant mountaineers; for, the town of Standtz being taken, the houses in its charming valley were given to the flames, and the inhabitants massacred without respect to age or sex.

After this terrible disaster, all Switzerland subscribed to the new constitution; Lucerne was selected as the seat of government, and a close alliance was formed between the Helvetic Republic and the French Directory. But the French oppressed the Swiss; and the Swiss sighed for their ancient laws and institu-Rushing to arms, in 1802, the inhabitants of the cantons, with the impetuosity of their ancestors, wrested Zurich, Friburg, and Berne, from their foreign masters, and nominated Aloys Reding as their chief. At this crisis, Bonaparte proclaiming himself their mediator, ordered that all hostilities should cease. The Helvetic Diet remonstrated; but the appearance of an army of thirty thousand men, under Ney, silenced their complaints, and the publication of a mediatorial decree suppressed the national independence of Switzerland.

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But a few years wrought a marvelous change in the face of Europe; the mighty Emperor fell, and Switzerland obtained deliverance. After the Peace of Paris, in 1814, her ancient form of government was restored; and, by rendering the allied and subject districts integral parts of the Republic, the number of cantons was increased from thirteen to twenty-two. In 1830, their respective governments, alarmed at the signals of tumult, propitiated popular feeling by reforming abuses, and thus added strength to the guarantees of freedom.

CHAPTER XII.

HISTORY OF HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

In the course of the tenth century the Batavians, or natives of Holland, who had successively submitted to the sway of the Roman and Frankish empires, assumed a position of independence, and vested their supreme authority in the nobles of the land, and the deputies from cities, who were presided over by the Earl of Hainault. But, in the fifteenth century, the sovereignty of all the Netherlands was surrendered to the house of Burgundy, whose last Duke, Charles the Rash, fell before the serried phalanx of Switzerland in 1477. From that haughty personage's daughter, Mary of Burgundy, the provinces were inherited by her grandson, the Emperor Charles V.; and he left them, with Spain and the Indies, to his son—the second Philip.

The free privileges enjoyed by the inhabitants, and their Protestant leanings, were regarded with feelings the reverse of kindly by the despotic monarch; and he resolved upon indulging his natural bigotry by establishing the Inquisition to eradicate heresy. The chief nobles, thereupon, assembled at Brussels, and

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dispatched deputies to represent their grievances at the court of Madrid; but Philip, deeming this step a treasonable infringement of his royal authority, sent the Duke of Alva with an army into Flanders to suppress the discontent by arbitrary means.

Philip was then deemed by far the most powerful sovereign of Europe, and there was a general disposition among the inhabitants of the Netherlands to submit to his power; but William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, surnamed the Taciturn, on whom he had conferred the government, was bent on resistance, and the blood, that was ere long shed by Alva, roused the spirit of his countrymen. The Counts of Horn and Egmont, with eighteen gentlemen, were led to the block; and the Prince of Orange, being destined to a similar fate, escaped to his patrimonial estates in Germany. Originally a Lutheran, he had reverted to Popery at the persuasion of the Emperor Charles, but he now embraced the Calvinistic doctrines. With great difficulty William raised an army, which, under the command of his brother, perished in Friesland. A second was equally unfortunate, and fortune still seemed so unfavorable, that he went to fight as a volunteer among the Huguenots of France. But the Flemish exiles, unable to find a refuge on foreign shores, made an assault on Brille, of which they rendered themselves masters, while the people of Holland and Zealand flew to arms, and declared against Alva's tyranny. The Prince of Orange then arrived to complete their liberation, united the revolted provinces into a league, and was declared their Stadtholder. Fired by a love of civil and religious freedom, the inhabitants resolved to defy all dangers, and suddenly exhibiting military prowess, they courageously repulsed Alva. That instrument of tyranny was, at his own request, recalled to Spain; and, in departing, he indulged in the ignoble boast, of having caused the execution of no fewer than eighteen thousand heretics.

Requesens, a man of a milder disposition, was now commissioned to conciliate the insurgents; but the war was carried on by the Dutch more heroically than ever. The Spaniards laid siege to Leyden; and it was defended with desperate courage. The Dutch, opening the dykes and sluices, which preserved their territory from the surrounding sea, endeavored to drive the besiegers from the arduous enterprise; but the Spaniards continued the siege, and undertook to drain off the water. The besieged were thus reduced to the last stage of misery, and were on the borders of despair, when a violent tempest drove the waters with such fury against the Spaniards, that, seeing themselves in peril of being swallowed up by the waves, they sounded a retreat, after having lost the flower of their army.

Soon after this memorable disaster, Requesens expired, and was succeeded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria; but the cruelty and rapacity of

the Spanish soldiers had united seven provinces into a formidable combination; and the ambitious governor, having by his projects aroused the jealousy of the King, was cut off in the midst of his career by poison, administered secretly, as was said, by order of Philip.

A price was now set on the head of the Prince of Orange; and that distinguished champion of freedom perishing by the hand of an assassin at Delft, the States sent an embassy to offer the sovereignty to the Queen of England. Declining the distinction, yet resolved to maintain the cause of the revolted provinces, that wise princess, with whose welfare were bound up the fate of nations and fortunes of Protestantism, dispatched to their aid an army under her unworthy favorite, the Earl of Leicester. That carpet knight, landing at Flushing, was there received by his nephew, the illustrious Sir Philip Sidney; and while the famous Drake was assailing the Spanish West Indies, Leicester commenced operations, but with little glory: for the renowned Prince of Parma now commanded the Spanish forces, and speedily captured several important strongholds from the insurgents.

Leicester, to draw off his redoubted antagonist from Rhimberg, sat down before Zutphen, to the relief of which Parma hastened. While the van of the Spanish army was advancing through a fog, they encountered a body of English cavalry, and a desperate conflict took place. Victory fell to the English, but it cost the life of the brave Sidney. Mortally wounded, the young here was borne from the field by his mourning soldiers, and laid down to expire. While he was bleeding on the ground, a bottle of water was brought to relieve the dying warrior's burning thirst; but perceiving a wounded man lying in agony by his side, the accomplished cavalier handed him the bottle, saying, with that fine chivalry which characterized his life and conduct, "Soldier, thy necessity is greater than mine."

The Dutch insurgents, while duly recognizing the valor of their English auxiliaries, were, with much reason, discontented with the incapacity of Leicester, who at length withdrew from the post of danger. Thereupon Count Maurice, son of the murdered Prince of Orange, was elected Stadtholder; and he, recovering some towns from the bold grasp of Parma, carried on the struggle with such indomitable determination, that, in 1609, the King of Spain was under the necessity of treating with the Dutch as a free people, and solemnly renouncing all claim to sovereignty over the Seven Provinces. The other ten were induced to remain subject to the crown of Spain. For the next half century the United Provinces, with the Hague for a capital, increased rapidly in wealth and importance. The marriage of a prince of Orange to an English princess led to a war between Holland and the Commonwealth; and the Dutch admiral, Tromp, so successfully encountered

the renowned Blake, that he fixed a broom on his mainmast to indicate his intention of sweeping the English navy from the seas.

This bravado was not to be patiently endured by "an old and haughty nation proud in arms," and a gallant fleet, fitted out to repair the disaster, anchored off Portland. On the 18th of February, 1663, seventy-six Dutch vessels, under Tromp and De Ruyter, sailed up the Channel; a furious fight began, and was maintained with obstinacy for three winter days. Blake was victorious, but several of his ships were shattered, many of his men were slain, and the Dutch admiral effected a skillful retreat. On the 29th of July-the Dutch having meantime been worstedthey again joined battle; and Tromp this time vowed to conquer or die. He encountered the foe with his wonted courage, and while cheering on his men sword in hand, was shot through the heart. His fall decided the day in favor of the English; and, at length, Cromwell, on being invested with the dignity of Protector, restored peace and concord.

After the Restoration of Charles II., war again broke out between the Dutch and English, and at first fortune smiled on the latter; but the measures of the Dutch were then directed by John de Witt, a minister of rare talent, integrity, and magnanimity. To repair their defeats, he went on board the fleet, assumed the command, acquired an intimate knowledge of naval affairs, and speedily redeemed the recent disasters. The Dutch formed an alliance with Louis XIV., and fought with the English during three long days in June, 1666. The conflict was indecisive; and De Ruyter, posting himself in the Thames, sustained a severe defeat; but De Witt was not to be daunted. Under the command of De Ruyter, a Dutch fleet appeared on the English coast, took Sheerness, burned the ships-of-war at Chatham, and sailed up to Tilbury. The Peace of Breda changed the face of matters, and soon after the United Provinces were exposed to an invasion from France.

The Dutch were a mercantile people. As early as the thirteenth century, they had been known as a frugal and amphibious race, whose industry monopolized the fish-trade, and who were extensively occupied with the building and navigating of ships. In spite of jealousy and tyranny, they had extended their trade to the East and West Indies, till, in 1648, the treaty of Westphalia guaranteed them Java, the Moluccas, with all their factories in India; and such was their commercial prosperity, that they possessed fifteen thousand ships when France had not more than six hundred

In 1667, however, the French Government imposed such import duties, that the Dutch were virtually prohibited from disposing of their manufactured goods in France; and, in retaliation, the States imposed high duties on French wines. For thus imitating his own policy, Louis in person invaded the United Provinces

with an army of more than 100,000 men, commanded by Condé, Turenne, Luxembourg, and Vauban. The cities, in terror, opened their gates; the passage of the Rhine was effected; deputies from the States came to sue for peace; and Louis demanded that the duties on wine should be remitted, and that he should annually receive a medal, surrounded by a legend, in acknowledgment that the Dutch people held their liberties at his sovereign will and pleasure. His haughty demands exasperated the despairing populace; the sluices were once more opened, and the country which had been reclaimed from the sea at so vast an expenditure of care and toil, was unhesitatingly laid under water. In their rage, the inhabitants massacred John de Witt, with his brother Cornelius, tried servants of the republic, and placed the government in the hands of William, the youthful Prince of Orange, who commanded their armies and directed their affairs with a vigor and prudence far beyond his years. After a prolonged war by sea and land, Louis, by the treaty of Nimeguen, revoked the obnoxious tariff, and thus succumbed on the original ground of dispute.

At this period the Dutch Republic was at the head of European independence, and supplied William of Orange with forces to accomplish a revolution in England. From that date they took little part in European struggles, and gain became their principal object. The wealthy magnates monopolized the com-

merce of Europe, as the merchant princes of Italy had formerly done. Amsterdam, which possessed a banking establishment widely celebrated, was the most important commercial city in Europe, and the coffers of the Dutch treasury seemed as inexhaustible as those of Venice had been in her days of greatness. Toward the close of the eighteenth century, a series of revolutions took place under foreign influence, and a French army entered the country; but these attempts to gain Holland by popular tunnult and external intrigue were resented by England and Prussia, who restored the Stadtholder, and suppressed the democratic party.

In 1805, however, when Bonaparte was every where victorious, he imposed upon Holland a new constitution, of which the chief was styled the Grand Pensionary. This lasted only till 1806, when the Emperor of the French, in the plenitude of his power, erected the United Provinces into a kingdom for his brother Louis; and, on the latter's dethronement in 1810, declared them an integral part of France.

At the Congress of Vienna, in 1815—her commerce and fisheries, formerly the most extensive in the world, having been all but destroyed in the revolutionary wars—Holland became a limited monarchy. The Netherlands were severed from the empire, raised into a kingdom, bestowed on the house of Orange, and, after a long separation, attached to Holland. But in 1830, the union never having been properly cemented, Belgium, rising at the earliest indications of Euro-

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pean revolution, shook off the yoke of Holland, and was formed into a kingdom, the crown of which was bestowed upon Prince Leopold. The little monarchy thus created was well-nigh crushed in its infancy by the obstinacy of the King of Holland; but a French army having forced the Dutch garrison to evacuate Antwerp, security was established.

CHAPTER XIII.

HISTORY OF PRUSSIA.

About the eleventh century, the Prussians, or inhabitants of the deserts between Poland and the Baltie, were known to the more civilized nations of Europe as barbarians living on the blood of horses, and gratifying their superstitious imaginations with the worship of serpents; and, somewhat later, they proved their courage by resisting the inroads of the Polish kings.

The Prussians were still Pagans, when, in 1227, the Teutonic knights, returning from the Holy Land, undertook their conversion with sword and lance. Many years of bloodshed ensued; and, in 1453, the Prussians were in danger of utter extirpation, when the King of Poland interfered in their behalf, and compelled the Teutonic order to surrender the eastern part of the country and do homage for the remainder.

The religious knights, from whom descended most of the Prussian nobles, made repeated attempts to throw off the Polish sovereignty, but in vain; till, in 1525, Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, after embracing the Lutheran faith, consented to share the realm with his kinsman, Sigismund of Poland, and perform homage, on condition of receiving that sovereign's protection. The domination of the Teutonic knights was thus treacherously terminated; and Prussia continued in vassalage to Poland till 1657, when it was released from allegiance in the time of Frederick William, known as the Great Elector of Brandenburg.

Frederick, son of the Great Elector, had scarcely succeeded to the paternal authority, when a trifling accident led him to aspire to royal dignity. On the occasion of a Conference at the Hague, in 1695, William III., king of England, refused to allow him an arm-chair; and the Elector, nettled at such treatment from one who had lately been only Prince of Orange, resolved on having a regal crown without any unnecessary delay. Every species of influence was exerted with the Emperor and the other European princes to obtain their consent to Brandenburg being erected into a kingdom; and, in 1701, after many negotiations, the Elector was crowned at Koningsberg as King of Prussia. The ceremony was performed with the utmost decorum, with a trifling exception. The Queen, a beautiful sister of our first George, seized a favorable opportunity to include in a pinch of snuff; but the King, turning his eyes on her at that very moment, immediately sent one of his gentlemen to ask if she remembered the place in

which she was and the rank she held. In honor of this occasion, Frederick created the order of the Knights of the Black Eagle. This first King of Prussia, after a peaceful reign, died in 1713; and he was succeeded by his son, Frederick William I.

During the earlier half of the eighteenth century. that extraordinary sovereign, dressed in a long blue coat with copper buttons, spatterdashes of a white color, strong shoes, with square toes and high heels, might have been observed to walk forth from the Palace of Berlin, with a sergeant's cane in his hand, to review his favorite regiment of guards. This was composed of the tallest men who could be procured for love or money, and was the delight of the King's heart. Believing that a state wanted nothing but troops and economy to make it flourish, he collected an army of sixty-six thousand men, and amassed wealth by buying up the estates of the impoverished nobility and farming them out to tax-gatherers. He died in 1740, leaving an efficient army and a wellfilled treasury to the son who was to continue the creation of the empire, and make it rank in importance with the ancient monarchies of Europe.

On the 24th of January, 1712, that royal personage, destined to render the name of Prussia great and celebrated among the nations, and to be recognized by posterity as Frederick the Great, first saw the light at Berlin, the capital of his paternal dominions. Though his father hated the French, the boy was intrusted in

infancy to a lady of that nation, and became so familiar with her language that he afterward entertained for it a peculiar partiality. At the early age of seven he was placed under the tuition of a colonel of dragoons; but though the old King's darling object was to inspire his son with a taste for military affairs, the Prince Royal gave unmistakable indications of being a man of letters as well as a man of action, and applied himself diligently to poetry and music, while drilling young gentlemen cadets for the amusement of his father's visitors. About his eighteenth year, the handsome and popular Prince was so annoyed at the violence and austerity with which the eccentric King treated him, that he resolved to escape to France or England. But the design being discovered, one of his accomplices was beheaded; another was treated with the utmost severity; and the Prince, after six months' imprisonment in the marsh-surrounded citadel of Custrin, narrowly escaped capital punishment. Liberated at the entreaty of his mother, and compelled to marry a German princess, he applied himself to study with great diligence, pacified his sire by procuring some tall soldiers, and, in 1734, crossing the Rhine, joined Prince Eugene and the Imperial army. On his father's decease, he ascended the throne; and as the territories over which he ruled as King and Elector were not extensive enough to satisfy his ardent ambition, he commenced his eventful reign by seizing two districts of the Bishopric of Liége; and



FREDERICK THE GREAT.



scarcely had he done so when the Emperor of Germany died, leaving the Austrian dominions to his daughter, Maria Theresa.

When the news was earried to Frederick, he was at Rhineberg struggling with a fever, but the intelligence hastened his recovery; and, eager for celebrity, he prepared to make good an ancient claim of his family to the Duchy of Silesia. Thither he forthwith marched at the head of thirty thousand men, before whom he caused the Roman Eagle to be earried on a gilt pole as a token of invincibility. The invaders at first encountered little resistance, but gradually the Austrian troops assembled, and instructions were sent to their general to hazard an engagement. In April, 1741, a battle took place at the village of Moldwitz, and vietory inclined to the Austrians; but the Prussian infantry stood so firm, that after several hours' conflict, the enemy retreated with immense loss, and Frederick, pursuing his triumph, entered Breslau, the capital of the Duchy.

The great hall of the state-house was on an early day opened for the reception of the Silesian nobles, clergy, and burghers, to do homage to the conqueror, and thither they repaired in pompous equipages, along streets thronged with people and guarded by soldiers. At noon the victorious King appeared in a phaetor, drawn by eight horses, and entered the hall. His stature was not remarkable for tallness, but his air was noble, his look sprightly, and his pleasing coun-

tenance was set off by large blue eyes, and bright brown hair, negligently curled. The assembled Silesians swore fealty to him as their king; a sumptuous banquet closed the ceremony; a masquerade ball followed; and illuminations threw a brilliancy over the conquered city.

Great was the joy and loud the welcome of the inhabitants of Berlin when their King returned from his victorious expedition. His court became particularly splendid; and fourteen foreign princes were among the crowd of strangers who resorted to Berlin. Meanwhile the courage with which the heroic Maria Theresa had faced her difficulties rendered it necessary for Frederick to undertake a campaign for the defense of his conquests, and the victory of Czaslau, where the Prussian infantry redeemed the day which the cavalry had lost, rendered the Prussian King so formidable, that Maria Theresa concluded a treaty, by which Silesia remained in his possession.

Mindful that peace hath her victories no less renowned than war, Frederick now devoted himself to the formation of an Academy of Sciences and Belleslettres; but, in 1744, he once more assumed his martial attire, placed himself at the head of his troops, invaded the kingdom of Bohemia, and took the city of Prague. But Charles of Lorraine, brother-in-law of Maria Theresa, stopped the King's progress, and caused him to retreat precipitately to Berlin with great loss. On the decease of the Emperor Charles, at Munich, in great misery, Frederick once more drew the sword, and excited much alarm in Germany by the activity of his movements and the success of his operations. After concluding the Peace of Dresden, he returned in triumph to his hereditary dominions. He now applied himself to domestic affairs, adopted means for increasing the population of his realm, encouraged French Huguenots to settle therein, expended vast sums in clearing waste lands, and improved the country by the construction of many navigable canals. Besides, he instituted the Frederician code, a body of laws for the government of his subjects, and published his Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg, and his poem on the Art of War.

One day, as Frederick was walking over a hill hard by the gate of Potsdam, he halted on the summit, and was so struck by the beautiful prospect, that he erected thereon a royal palace, in which he was residing when visited, in 1750, by the famous Voltaire. The French philosopher was, after much persuasion, induced to remain in Prussia, and for a time was in very high favor with the King, but in 1752 serious misunderstandings occurred. Voltaire had a disreputable wrangle with a Jew, and interfered in an academical dispute in opposition to Frederick. This led to unpleasantness; and the skeptic philosopher, having exercised his satiric faculty at the expense of his royal patron, was requested to leave the kingdom. Voltaire

did so; but happening to carry with him the manuscript of a poem by the Prussian monarch, he was arrested, with his niece, at Frankfort, and forced to deliver up the volume.

Frederick's attention was soon attracted toward other matters; for, after an enmity of three centuries, the Houses of Bourbon and Austria formed a close alliance, and the Prussian monarch, to his surprise, found himself an enemy of France and a friend of England. Now commenced the Seven Years' War, in the course of which Frederick encountered his enemies in several battles, and maintained himself against fearful odds, till a peace, which left Prussia great and influential, was restored by the treaty of Hubertsburg in 1763. The great Frederick survived till 1786, when he was interred in the Garrison Church at Potsdam, leaving to his country a reputation, not spotless indeed, but for wisdom and valor far superior to that of any prince of the age.

Frederick William II., nephew of the renowned King, next reigned over the Prussians, and lived into the stormy times of the French Revolution, against the progress of which he formed a league in 1792. The fiery monarch declared war against France, but growing tired of a contest in which he could reap neither glory nor advantage, he concluded a treaty with the Republic in 1705. Two years later he died, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick William III. The new king pursued a vacillating policy. In 1801,

irritated at the seizure of one of his vessels, he complained of the oppressions of Great Britain, and sending a body of troops into Hanover, seized the capital, and afterward accepted the Electorate from Bonaparte. But, in 1806, Frederick William, resolved to break with the great Emperor, formed a Confederation of the Northern States to oppose the Confederation of the Rhine, and insulted the French embassador at Berlin. Prussia now prepared for war; and the Queen, in all the pride of youth and beauty, arrayed herself in military costume, mounted a war charger, and traversed the streets of the capital to excite the martial enthusiasm of the populace. "She looks," said Bonaparte admiringly, "like Armida, in her distraction setting fire to her own palace." The war almost extinguished the Prussian monarchy; the army was totally defeated at Jena and Auerstadt, and the Peace of Tilsit left the descendant of the great Frederick little more than a nominal sovereignty.

The Prussians suffered much during the next seven years. Their fortresses were occupied by the French; the fields lay uncultivated; commerce lauguished; and industry was paralyzed. The high spirit of the Queen, whom personal grace and dignity had rendered highly popular, was broken by the misfortunes of her country, and, in 1810, she expired in the prime of womanhood. Her death so afflicted the bereaved husband, that he well-nigh acted on a resolution of abandoning affairs of state, and seeking consolation in

seclusion. His troops were employed as auxiliaries against Russia, but, after the disastrous campaign of 1812, he was invited by the Czar to declare war against France. He offered his mediation, which Bonaparte rejected; but matters could not rest there; for Berlin was in the hands of the French, while the inhabitants sympathized with the Russians, and daily tumults, in consequence, occurred. Ultimately the King threw off his indecision; the French troops evacuated the city, and the Russians took possession.

Prussia ere long profited largely by this step, for the congress of Vienna restored more than her former importance, and the Prussians, under Blucher, shared in the glories of Waterloo. The King, whom the Emperor Napoleon characterized as the "greatest idiot on the face of the earth," survived till 1840, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick William IV., the present King of Prussia

CHAPTER XIV.

HISTORY OF DENMARK.

THE Celts, who originally inhabited the islands of the Baltic, were early displaced by fierce Germanic tribes, who, settling in Denmark, and animated by a daring spirit of adventure, commenced depredations in all parts of Europe. Worshipers of Odin, and, as such, cheerful in danger, laughing at death, and steeled against fear, they, unhesitating, launched their light barks on the raging sea, and, unfurling their magic banners, sailed forth to foreign shores in quest of adventure. They besieged and burned Paris, infested the coasts of England, and planted powerful colonies in the northern counties of the latter kingdom. Though yielding for a season, after a severe struggle, to the valor and genius of Alfred the Great, the English Danes did not for a moment forget of what race they were; and at all times they were ready to take part with the invading hosts, who appeared periodically on the coasts of Kent or Northumberland.

At the close of the tenth century the Danish branch of the great Scandinavian family owned as their King

Swen, the grandson of Gurm; and, in the year 994, that sovereign, in company with Olaf, King of Norway, invaded England, and twice compelled Ethelred the Saxon to pay an enormous sum of money on condition of their retiring. The money was raised by a tax called Danegeld; and many of the ravagers returned to their northern home with their terrible Several of his subjects, however, deeming England a pleasant residence, remained behind; kept the Anglo-Saxons in perpetual dread of a new invasion; lived in ease and luxury; and forced the natives to labor, that their demands might be satisfied. Assuming the bearing of conquerors, they even affected a superiority in social refinement, and prided themselves highly on combing their hair, shaving their faces, bathing regularly once a-week, and frequently changing their garments.

The oppressive exactions of these Lord-Danes, as they were in hatred called, roused the Anglo-Saxons to thoughts of vengeance, and a plot was formed for massacring all the Danish settlers. Seenes of terrible cruelty were perpetrated; and holes were dug in the earth, in which the Danish women were planted as deep as the waist, while their shoulders were mangled and torn to pieces by fierce mastiffs. Among the unfortunate victims on this occasion was a sister of King Swen. She had married a noble Dane, embraced Christianity, and exerted her influence to promote peace and good-will between the two hostile races.

But her many excellences did not save her on that day of retribution; for, her children having been slain before her eyes, she was remorselessly beheaded.

When news of the tragical event arrived in Denmark, the King swore that he would never rest until he had exacted a terrible vengeance. Swen forthwith fitted out a formidable fleet, and, after repeated attempts, rendered himself master of England, and was, without opposition, proclaimed king of that country. There he remained till his death in 1014, when his son, Canute the Great, aspired to the sovereignty.

While that renowned prince was endeavoring to establish his claim, his younger brother, being left in Denmark, seized upon the hereditary crown; and Canute was under the necessity of abandoning England for a period, to vindicate his birth-right. Within a year he arranged the matter to his satisfaction, and, having mustered an army, commenced the subjugation of England, of which he was at length acknowledged as King. He had searcely restored the conquered country to tranquillity, when his Danish subjects were involved in war with the Vandals; and Canute, hastening home, was triumphant in encountering them. He next undertook an expedition against the Swedes, who had invaded his territory; and though this enterprise was not quite successful, in 1027, he had the distinction of obtaining possession, and being crowned King of Norway.

Canute signalized his reign by a memorable revo-

lution in religion. The conversion of the Danes to Christianity had commenced as early as the ninth century; but the process had been particularly slow. Very little progress had been made, and they had still delighted in the desceration of churches, the murder of prelates, and the slaughter of monks. Canute now decreed that Christianity should be received throughout his extensive dominions, founded several religious houses, and undertook a devout pilgrimage to Rome, to obtain the patronage of the Pope.

These were proud days for the Danes; for their king, as sovereign of three countries, was one of the most considerable potentates of Europe, and not unworthy of his high honors. Nevertheless, he was not insensible of the vanity of sublunary greatness. One day, as he was walking along the sea-shore at Southampton, his courtiers not only extolled him as one of the greatest of human beings, but even described him as a god. To illustrate the folly of their remarks, Canute ordered a chair to be brought, and, seating himself where the tide was about to flow, turned toward the blue waters, and said, "Oh sea! thou art under my jurisdiction, and the land where I sit is mine; I eommand thee to come no farther, nor to presume to wet thy sovereign's feet." But the resounding billows moving onward to his chair, the King rose and impressed upon his flatterers, that none but the King of heaven, whom the land and the sea obeyed, was entitled to the praises which they had just showered

upon a mortal. From that date, the royal Dane wore his crown no more, but caused it to be suspended on a crucifix at Winchester, where his remains were consigned to the dust in 1036.

Hardicanute, the son of the great departed, then became King of Denmark, and the inhabitants turned their attention to peaceful pursuits. Their first source of wealth was the herring-fishery on the coast of Schonen; and the traders of all nations came to exchange gold, silver, and precious commodities for herrings; so that when the thirteenth century arrived, the Danes, who had formerly been clad for the most part in the coarse garb of sailors, arrayed themselves in purple, scarlet, and fine linen.

Time passed on, and more than three centuries after Canute had been laid at rest in the old monastery at Winehester, Margaret, daughter of the Danish King Waldemar, and widow of Hacquin of Norway, on the death of her son Olaus, ascended the throne of Denmark with the consent of the States. This royal widow, being a princess of courage and address, procured her election as Queen of Norway, and subsequently, by expelling Albert of Mecklenburg, acquired the sovereignty of Sweden—thus uniting three crowns on her fair brow. Ambitious of writing her name indelibly in the annals of Northern Europe, Margaret, known as "the Semiramis of the North," conceived the project of a perpetual union of the three kingdoms, and in 1397, brought about the celebrated treaty of Cal-

mar, which declared that Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, should from that date remain under one and the same sovereign. Under her successor, Eric, the Swedes revolted against the union and chose a king; but they returned to their allegiance when the Count of Oldenburgh, progenitor of the present royal family of Denmark, ascended the throne of Canute as Christian I.

This renewed union, with a few interruptions, endured till 1523, when the intolerable ernelties of Christian II., "the Nero of the North," caused his subjects to rise in rebellion. The inhabitants of Jutland were the first to throw off the tyrant's yoke; and they deputed Munce, their chief justice, to inform the King that he had ceased to reign. The commission was perilous; but Munce, glorying in the danger, exclaimed, "My name ought to be written over the gates of all wicked princes." Christian, in his distress, implored assistance from the Emperor Charles, but none was rendered; and after several ineffectual efforts to recover his crown, the deposed King expired in prison.

His uncle, Frederick, Duke of Holstein, then ascended the throne of Denmark, and was succeeded in 1535 by his son, Christian III., who speedily proved himself one of the most sagacious princes of that age. In his reign the Lutheran faith was established in the nation; and his grandson, Christian IV., appeared as chief of the Protestant cause at the opening of the

Thirty Years' War. But having been defeated in a great battle by the Imperial General, Count Tilly, Christian resigned that post of honor, and signed the peace of Lubeck in 1625. His son, Frederick III., ascended the Danish throne in 1648, and was prevailed upon by the Dutch to declare war against Sweden. The King of that country, in consequence, entered Denmark, and besieged Copenhagen, which was only saved by the timely arrival of a Dutch fleet. A second attack was made in 1659, and Copenhagen was in the utmost peril; but the English and Dutch resolving to mediate, a fleet appeared, having on board the famous republican, Algernon Sidney, who, as embassador of England and Holland, demanded unqualified submission to his delegated authority. "It is cruel," exclaimed the haughty Swedish monarch in bitter wrath at this interference, "that laws should be prescribed to me by parricides and peddlers;" but, apprehensive of his army being starved, he agreed to a pacification, and retired into his own country.

Though Frederick, by his wars with Sweden, lost much valuable territory, the Danes were inspired with so high an admiration of his gallant bearing and of the interest he manifested in the welfare of his subjects, that to terminate the oppression experienced at the hands of the nobles, they, in 1660, requested their King to take all power into his own hands. Thus the crown, which had hitherto been elective, was rendered hereditary in the royal house, and his son, Christian

V., succeeded in 1670, as an absolute sovereign. After exhausting his resources in fruitless military operations, he became the ally and subsidiary of France, and left the crown to his son, Frederick IV., who took part in the confederacy against the King of Sweden—the famous Charles XII. That royal hero laid siege to Copenhagen; and in his impatience to reach the shore, enthusiastically leaped into the sea, sword in hand. His courageous example was followed by the soldiers, and straightway the Danish troops fled in terror and dismay. It was then that the Swedish monarch, astonished at the discharge of musketry, inquired of an officer what caused the whistling noise he heard. "It is the sound of the bullets they fire against your Majesty," replied the other. "Very well," said the Swede, "that shall henceforth be my music," and the assault was hotly pressed. But the citizens sent deputies, who, on bended knees, implored the invading sovereign not to destroy the town; and a large sum of money being paid to him, a peace was forthwith signed at Travendal.

King Frederick died in 1730, and his son, Christian VI., was so successful in cultivating the arts of peace and promoting the national prosperity, that his subjects honored him with the appellation of the Father of his People. Frederick V. emulated his royal sire's example, and, after a reign of twenty years, was succeeded by his son, Christian VII., who soon after received as his bride Caroline Matilda, sister of

our third George. The ill-fated English princess had scarcely become accustomed to her new honors, when she was accused of a too close intimacy with Count Struense, the King's favorite and minister, and of a conspiracy with him and Count Brandt to dethrone her husband. The two counts were apprehended, put in irons, and subsequently beheaded. The unhappy Queen was likewise arrested and confined in the castle of Cronenburgh. Afterward a small squadron of British ships conveyed her to Germany; the city of Zell was appointed for her residence; and there she was cut off by a malignant fever in the twenty-fourth year of her age.

As the evening of his life approached, the Danish King became so imbecile in mind, that the functions of government devolved upon the Prince Royal, who straightway effected most desirable reforms in the condition of the peasantry. These, since 1660, had been in a state of slavery, and had not the power of removing from one estate to another without purchasing the permission of their masters. In case of leaving without that degrading process, they were claimed and brought back like stray cattle; but from the reproach attaching to such an iniquitous system, Denmark was now fortunately freed.

In 1801, when a serious dispute occurred between England and the Northern powers, relative to the right of search of neutral vessels, Denmark bore a prominent and perilous part, and prepared to resist

the mistress of the sea. An armed flotilla was stationed before Copenhagen, and flanked by extensive batteries; but the great Nelson passed the Sound with an English fleet, destroyed eighteen Danish ships-of-war, and brought matters to accommodation. From the commencement of the revolutionary wars, Denmark rejected every invitation to take part against France, and for a time maintained neutrality. But in 1807, the English Government having reason to apprehend that the Danish navy would be used for the invasion of the British isles. bombarded Copenhagen with a powerful armament and fleet, under Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier. The city was set on fire and threatened with destruction, when the Danish general sent out a flag of truce. By a capitulation, the Danish fleet was surrendered till a general peace; and the vessels and stores having been sent to England, the place was abandoned

This attack rankled in the heart of the Danish sovereign and his subjects. But the misery endured by the country at length induced Frederick VI., in 1813, to dispatch an embassador to London, and soon after to separate his interests from those of France, to negotiate a treaty of peace with England, and surrender Norway to Sweden. At the Congress of Vienna, that territorial arrangement was maintained.

In 1835, a remarkable eircumstance occurred in

the affairs of Denmark. Since the days of the third Frederick, the government had been despotic; but Frederick VI. came voluntarily forward and granted a representative assembly to assist him in the administration. He was succeeded by Christian VIII., whose son, Frederick VII., is the present King of Denmark.

CHAPTER XV.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

The ancient Swedes were a fierce and contentious nation, divided into a number of petty states, each owning the sway of a distinct chieftain, and indulging in rapine and carnage. In the twelfth century flourished St. Eric, a Swedish king, who won celebrity and arrived at the honors of canonization; and whose banner, on the fold of which were emblazoned a dragon and a lamb, to denote the sainted monarch's prowess in war and his gentleness in peace, was long preserved as a sacred relic in the Cathedral of Upsala, and regarded by the Swedes as the palladium of victory.

More than a hundred years later, Magnus Ladislaus, after being crowned King of Sweden, had the distinction of maintaining the royal authority and holding the warlike Danes in check; but under his less vigorous successors, tumult and disorder returned and desolated the land, till, in 1394, the three Northern crowns were united on the forehead of Margaret Waldemar, who brought about the union of Calmar.

When Christian II. was crowned King of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, that "Nero of the North" signalized the occasion by a tragical seene. To secure his authority, he projected the extirpation of the Swedish chieftains, and with that view—after obtaining the sanction of a papal bull—invited the nobles and senators to a magnificent entertainment. The festivities lasted three days; on the last of which, in an hour of conviviality, the banquet-hall was suddenly filled with armed men, who seized the devoted guests and dragged them to the gates of the palace. There a scaffold was erected, and ninety-four persons of high rank were mercilessly executed.

Among the unfortunate victims of Christian's jealousy, was a nobleman, who derived his descent from the ancient Kings of Sweden, who bore the name of Eric Vasa, and who had a son, Gustavus, then confined as a hostage by the King. Escaping from his prison, the youthful Gustavus betook himself to the mountains of Dalecarlia, and lurked there for a time in the disguise of a peasant. A single attendant, who acted as his guide, deserted him, and carried off what little property he possessed; and Gustavus, in the utmost perplexity, hired himself as a miner, and toiled underground for his daily bread. Still he was animated by a restless soul, and by the inspiriting hope of ere long ascending the throne of Sweden.

At length the time for action seemed to have arrived; and Gustavus attended the annual feast of

the mountaineers. Suddenly he cast off his disguise, declared who he was, and invoked their aid for the recovery of their country's liberties. Though the barbarities which the soldiers of Christian had practiced against the Swedes had roused their blood, the Daleearlians were at first irresolute about joining Gustavus. But one of the aged men remarked, with a look of wisdom, that the wind had blown directly from the north as soon as Gustavus opened his mouth to speak; and deeming that circumstance an infallible sign of his aspirations being favored by Heaven, the Dalecarlians consented to take up arms under the hero's guidance. Gradually assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christian; and the tyrant's cruelties soon stirring the Danes and Norwegians to revolt, the despotic King was solemnly deposed, and Gustavus was proclaimed King of Sweden. A remarkable change was soon perceptible in the condition of the country. Gustavus and the National Church adhered to the Confession of Faith which Melanethon, the mild and learned disciple of the fiery Luther, had drawn up at the Diet of Augsburg; and Sweden speedily exhibited evidence of being freed from Papal eraft and control. Arts and commerce began to flourish, and as time passed on, the Swedish monarchy assumed a high and formidable position among the powers of Europe. Gustavus, after swaying the sceptre for about forty years, and contributing much to the happiness and prosperity of the people whom he had

delivered, was succeeded, in 1560, by his son Eric. But the latter, who aspired to the hand of Queen Elizabeth, proving a cruel and unworthy prince, was dethroned by the States in favor of his brother John; and that prince made an unwise effort to restore the Romish religion in Sweden. His son Sigismund, who had previously been elected King of Poland, on inheriting the Swedish throne, likewise pursued the scheme of subjugating Sweden to Rome; whereupon his subjects, who were now zealous Lutherans, not only declined to listen to any such proposal, but deposed him in 1600, and placed on the throne his uncle Charles, a son of Gustavus Vasa.

Charles IX. wielded the sceptre during his life; and dying in 1611, transmitted it to his son Gustavus Adolphus, celebrated as the Lion of the North, and the Bulwark of the Protestant faith. The young hero had scarcely completed his eighteenth year when he ascended the paternal throne; but he soon made his influence felt throughout Europe. His kinsman, Sigismund, who still swayed the sceptre of Poland, affected to treat him as a usurper, and rejected offers of friendship; but Gustavus overran his territories, and having proved his military skill, he espoused the declining cause of the hapless King of Bohemia, and became chief of the confederation for humbling the pride, and reducing the power, of the Catholic House of Austria. With this view, Gustavus began to take in the Thirty Years' War that conspicuous part which has rendered his name immortal, and bore the banner of Protestantism through Germany. Soldiers of fortune, especially from Scotland, flocked to his victorious standard. Alexander Leslie—the celebrated Earl of Leven—after fighting against Spain in the cause of the United Provinces, won in the service of Gustavus the rank of field-marshal, and that military reputation which rendered him so formidable to the forces of our first Charles; while David Leslie gained such experience as a commander of cavalry which enabled him to turn the tide of fight on Marston Moor, and break the ferocious charge of Montrose's Highland host on the banks of the Ettrick.

Supported by subsidies from France, then governed by the great Richelieu, Gustavus speedily produced a change in the aspect of European affairs. At Leipsie, in 1631, he encountered the famous Tilly, till then deemed invincible, and was signally victorious over that great soldier; and he afterward attacked the defeated general at the passage of the Leck, where the latter lost his life.

The Emperor, in alarm at the prospect of his schemes being thwarted, recalled to his service the illustrious Wallenstein, who had been formerly disgraced, and sent him against the redoubted champion of Protestantism. A simple stone, near Lutzen, still marks the place where, in 1632, the two heroes met for a decisive conflict. The Swedish King had little fear of defeat. Courageous to excess, he appeared on

the day of battle in front of his army, bestriding his strong war-steed, and surpassing in stature every man in his army. His fortune as a general did not desert him on this day of trial; and he was again victorious; but in the hour of triumph the victor perished on the field. Wallenstein was prevented from following up the advantage which the fall of such an adversary gave him, for he was assassinated, at Egra, by messengers whom the Emperor had sent to arrest him.

With Gustavus vanished all the grand schemes he had cherished for the glory of his country; and the Swedish throne was inherited by his daughter, Christina, who had only attained her sixth year. A Council of Regeney was forthwith appointed; and the conduct of the war in Germany was intrusted to the Chancellor Oxenstiern, a man skillful alike in the cabinet and the field. After sixteen years had passed, the long war was terminated by the Treaty of Westphalia; and Sweden acquired Pomerania, Stettin, and other provinces.

Queen Christina had previously arrived at legal age, and proved a most eccentric personage. Proclaiming herself the patroness of art and letters, she attracted to her court several men of eminence, and expressed so intense a dislike to public affairs, that the States ventured to propose that she should espouse her cousin, Charles Gustavus. But Christina, though by no means a man-hater, sternly refused to accept of a

husband; and much discontent prevailing on account of her absorption in literary and philosophic pursuits, she abdicated in favor of Charles. She then left the Swedish capital, and indulged her eccentricity by traveling through Germany in male attire. At Inspruck she renounced the Lutheran dectrines, embraced the Romish faith, and betook herself to Italy; but tiring of her residence there, she repaired to France, took up her abode in Paris, and freed herself from every restraint. At length, in a fit of jealousy, the royal virago caused her Master of the Horse to be assassinated in the great gallery at Fontainebleau, and the public indignation excited by this crime drove her to Rome.

While Christina was thus, at the cost of her reputation, roaming over Christendom, her successor, Charles X., was engaged in a war with Denmark, and being cut off by a fever in the camp, his son, Charles XI., ascended the throne, and reigned till 1697, when he went to the grave, and was succeeded by his son, Charles XII., one of the most singular characters who ever played a part on the stage of human affairs.

The youth and inexperience of Charles—for he had only attained his fifteenth year—tempted the Kings of Denmark and Poland to form against him a confederacy with the Czar Peter. The Swedish King thèreupon, with juvenile enthusiasm, laying siege to Copenhagen, soon made the Danish people repent of

their sovereign's temerity; and then turning against the Czar, who had besieged Narva, he advanced to the relief of that place, defeated the Russians with slaughter, and captured all their baggage and artillery. After this triumphant enterprise, he marched against the Poles, took Warsaw and Cracow, deposed King Augustus, and placed on the throne of Poland Stanislaus, a dependant of his own.

After these brilliant exploits, all Europe courted the alliance of the conquering hero; and the Czar perceived the wisdom of making peace with a foe so formidable. But abruptly terminating negotiations, Charles declared that he would treat only at Moscow, and made preparations with an army of forty-five thousand men for the conquest of Russia. At this point his prescience failed him, and laid the foundation of countless disasters, for, baffled in his design of marching directly to the enemy's capital, the Swede was allured, by treacherous promises from the Cossacks, to venture through the Ukraine in the depth of winter, and thus exposed his troops to the utmost misery. Yet though his soldiers were perishing from fatigue, and in many cases almost destitute of shoes and clothes, nothing could impede the progress of the royal enthusiast. His military ardor bore him up against all hardships. He swam rivers at the head of his cavalry, executed marvelous marches, and, in 1709, penetrated to Pultowa. There, however, he was encountered by the Czar, and a bloody battle taking place, the Russians won a complete victory. Nine thousand Swedes were slain in the fight; fourteen thousand more were taken prisoners; and Charles himself, wounded and vanquished, experienced much difficulty in escaping, with the wreck of his army, to Bender, in the Turkish dominions.

Sweden was, in the mean time, exposed to the attacks of the King's enemies; and the Regency, in despair at his absence, resolving to consult him no longer in regard to public affairs, entreated his sister, the Princess Ulrica, to assume the reins of government, and make peace with Denmark and Russia.

Charles, who had made the Turks his enemies, was in bed at Demotica, and a nominal captive, when the intelligence of this transaction was brought to him; and fierce was his anger. He roused himself to energy, and wrote to the Swedish Senators, that if they dared to assume the functions of government, he would send one of his boots to issue orders; and hastily departed, with the sanction of the Porte, for Stralsund, which about eighty years earlier had been triumphantly defended by Alexander Leslie against Wallenstein and an imperial army elate with recent victory. From this place, in 1714, Charles, glowing with a martial enthusiasm which precluded prudence, issued orders to his generals to renew the war.

The deluded King himself, with a body of twelve thousand Swedes, undertook to defend Stralsund against the united forces of Russia and Denmark, and in the attempt shrunk not from the most perilous exploits. The brave defenders were soon reduced to the last extremity, and half the town was reduced to ashes; but Charles, still unmoved, fought with desperate valor among his soldiers. But, at last, when every ray of hope had departed, and death or captivity seemed the inevitable consequence of remaining, he consented, with a sigh, to make his escape, and embarked in a small vessel. Favored by the darkness of night, he passed the Danish fleet, and, attended by two officers, made his way in disguise to his own capital.

At this date, Cardinal Alberoni, prime minister of Spain, while cherishing the ambition of Elizabeth Farwese, the second wife of the fifth Philip, conceived the laring project of reseating the exiled Stuarts on the English throne, and deeming the renowned King of Sweden a fitting leader for such an enterprise, concerted measures with Gortz, the Swedish minister. The Czar took part in the scheme, and agreed to a peace with Sweden, but an unexpected occurrence swept the vision all away.

Charles, whose spirit no adversity could tame, resolved upon wresting Norway from Denmark; and, mustering a fresh army, sat down, in the winter of 1718, to reduce the town of Frederickshall. No attempt could have been more rash. The season was intensely rigorous; the frost so keen, that the ground

was as hard as iron, and the atmosphere so cold that sentinels frequently sank lifeless under its effects. The enthusiastic King shared the most dread perils, and, to encourage his soldiers, even slept in the open air with no covering save his cloak. But, on the night of the 11th December, while viewing the operations of his troops by starlight, he was struck in the temple by a ball, and, after grasping the hilt of his sword, expired without a groan.

The States of the realm, exercising their ancient privilege, elected as their sovereign the Princess Ulrica, sister of the fallen monarch; and she entered into a solemn engagement never to attempt arbitrary rule. The Queen afterward abdicated in favor of her husband, Frederick, Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and, with the consent of the States, that prince ascended the throne, and made peace with all the hostile powers. On the demise of Frederick, without heirs, the crown reverted to Adolphus, duke of Holstein, who was descended, in the female line, from the ancient house of Vasa. Owing to the factions of the senators, and the restraints then imposed on the royal authority, the reign of Adolphus was one long scene of confusion. When he died, in 1771, the sceptre passed to his son, Gustavus III.

Every possible precaution was used to bind the new king to the established laws. At the ceremony of coronation he took an oath, which an extraordinary Diet had carefully framed for his acceptance, and swore to rule with equity and moderation. But, possessing high talents, an engaging address, and a graceful elocution, Gustavus contrived artfully to elude the obligations and to render himself popular. He treated the humblest of his subjects with affability, manifested much interest in their welfare, and gave audience to all who presented themselves. When his schemes were fully ripe, he caused the members of the Senate to be arrested, and an assembly of the States to be convened.

On the 24th of August, 1772, the hall in which they assembled was suddenly surrounded with troops; and at the entrance was planted cannon. The soldiers stood over the loaded guns with lighted matches; Gustavus, escorted by his officers and guards, seated himself on the throne, and presented to the States a new constitution, which—resistance being out of the question—was unhesitatingly accepted. Gustavus thus became an absolute monarch; but the remainder of his life was spent in jealous vigilance; and, at length, one of the Swedish nobles undertook to free his compeers from their tyrant. At a public masquerade, in March, 1792, the King was shot with a pistol, and, after lingering in great pain for a fortnight, expired in his forty-sixth year.

His son, Gustavus IV., then ascended the throne, the Duke of Sudermania, unele of the youthful monarch, enacting the part of regent. The young King entered with characteristic ardor into the confederacy formed by the Northern powers against England, which was dissolved by Lord Nelson's victory at Copenhagen; but, in 1804, he changed his policy, declared against Bonaparte, withdrew his embassador from France, and prohibited all intercourse with that country. Soon after, Sweden being involved in a war with Russia, suffered the loss of Finland; and the operations of Gustavus excited so much discontent, that he was expelled from his ancestral throne in 1809, and replaced by his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, with the title of Charles XIII. The new King, after a struggle, opened negotiations with France, and adopted the "Continental System" for the exclusion of British commerce from the ports of the Baltic.

The sudden death of the Crown Prince of Sweden, in the year 1810, while he was reviewing some regiments of cavalry, opened up a new scene, and the suspicion that he had been poisoned having been allayed by a judicial inquiry, public attention was turned to the election of a successor. For that ceremony the States of Sweden assembled at Orebro, and several royal candidates appeared. But the honor fell to Marshal Bernadotte; and that French general, a native of Gascony, who had entered the ranks at the age of fifteen, became heir to the Swedish crown and virtual ruler of the country. Bonaparte, who considered the advancement of the man who had carried the collar of the Emperor at the memorable corona-

tion of 1804, as an event likely to minister to his own aggrandizement, and complete the subjugation of the North to his system, permitted his Marshal to accept the prospective sovereignty. But Bernadotte preferred the interests of the Swedish people to those of his former master; and within a few months Sweden was menaced by the French Emperor. After a delay of two years, the court of Stockholm concluded an alliance with England; and, in 1813, when the Allies undertook against France what was termed a "campaign of the liberties of Europe," Bernadotte, while commanding their army in the north of Germany, rendered such active and vigorous aid, that he was rewarded with the sovereignty of Norway, wrested from Denmark by the Treaty of Kiel. But the Norwegians, not relishing this territorial arrangement, invited the King of Denmark to assume the regal authority, and made a struggle for independence. Their efforts proved unavailing; and, on the death of the old King, Bernadotte, with the title of Charles John XIV., governed the united kingdoms. His reign was beneficial to the interests of his adopted country; many public works of importance were undertaken and completed; agriculture was developed; commerce and manufactures were fostered; and the national finances were restored to order. A leaning toward Russia, the very name of which was odious to his subjects, rendered the distinguished soldier less popular than from his services to the state he would otherwise have been. He expired in 1844, and his son, Osear, the present sovereign, ascending the throne of Gustavus Adolphus and the twelfth Charles, commenced, with popular measures, his reign over a brave, robust, and industrious people.

CHAPTER XVI.

HISTORY OF TURKEY AND GREECE.

In the month of April, 1453, Mohammed the Great, Sultan of the Turks-a race of Scythians, who had gradually extended their conquests from the shores of the Caspian to the Straits of the Dardanelles-attacked Constantinople, the capital of the empire of the East, with three hundred thousand men, and three hundred and twenty vessels. The inhabitants, though too indolent in making preparations for the struggle, volunteered to the number of four thousand for the defense of their city, fought with courage, and repaired the breaches with alacrity. Besides, they poured on the besiegers burning naphtha and boiling oil-" the Greek fire"-and burned the wooden towers of the Turks as soon as they were advanced to the walls. Their hearts were ere long gladdened by the arrival of several ships laden with provisions, which, in defiance of the Turkish fleet, entered the harbor in safety. Mohammed, however, caused eighty of his galleys to be carried over the ground behind the city, and placed opposite the weakest part of the ramparts, and then pressed the beleaguered capital on all sides.

About the end of May the walls were battered down with cannon; and the besiegers, entering sword in hand, slaughtered all who opposed them. The Emperor Constantine, after a heroic struggle, was slain in one of the breaches; the Empire of the East, which had endured for more than eleven centuries, was extinguished; the churches were converted into mosques; and many of the inhabitants were sold or exchanged as captives in the Turkish provinces. The victors now established their seat of government in the Imperial city, introduced into Europe that despotic system which prevailed in Asia, and vested the supreme power in Sultans of the Ottoman race, whose blood was considered sacred. The capture of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece and Epirus; and, as their territories extended, the Sultans, finding it necessary to render their military force formidable, and possess a body of troops devoted to their will, seized annually a fifth part of the youths taken in war. These soldiers being instructed in the Mohammedan faith, inured to passive obedience, and trained to martial exercises, were distinguished by the name of Janizaries. From attending on the person of the Sultan, and being regarded as the strength of the army, the Janizaries became conscious of their own importance; and at length, growing turbulent and mutinous, they believed themselves entitled to degrade or elevate Sultans at their pleasure.

Mohammed the Great was succeeded by a number

of Ottoman princes; and, in 1520, the throne was ascended by Solyman the Magnificent, celebrated in Turkish annals as a great lawgiver and a famous warrior. The island of Rhodes was the darling object of his martial ambition; and he attacked it with a mighty force. The Knights of St. John, who in ancient days had taken the place from the Saracens, made a gallant defense, and were aided by the European powers; but, after a severe siege, they were compelled to capitulate and abandon the island.

Solyman, after various conquests in Europe, died in 1565; and his son, Selim II., concluding a peace with the German Emperor, attempted to subdue the kingdom of Persia; but failing in his efforts, he attacked the island of Cyprus, which was then subject to the Republic of Venice. On this enterprise being rumored, the Venetians formed a league with the Pope and the second Philip of Spain for defense of the place; but ere relief could be sent, the capital had been taken by storm, and all the towns captured. Masters of Cyprus, the Turks unchecked ravaged the coasts, till their fleet was encountered at Lepanto by that of the confederates, under Don John of Austria, natural brother of the Spanish king. The conflict was bloody and protracted, and it was desperately maintained hand to hand. The Turkish admiral, surrounded by hundreds of Janizaries, maintained for hours a fierce struggle with the Austrian Don. Amidst the din of battle the Admiral fell; and his galley being taken, the

Turkish standard was torn down from the stern, and his head set up in its stead. The Turks then gave way, and the news of this victory was hailed at Rome with rapturous delight; but the confederates disagreed among themselves, and the Venetians allowed Selim to retain Cyprus. Don John then seized upon Tunis, which he was ambitious of erecting into a sovereignty for himself; but a Turkish fleet speedily appeared before the place, which was stormed, and taken at the point of the sword.

Amurath III. succeeded his father in 1574, and after adding part of Hungary to his dominions, was succeeded by his son, Mohammed III., who secured the throne by causing nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and twelve of his father's wives to be thrown into the sea. After supporting the dignity of the empire till 1605, he left behind him two sons—Achmet, who only reigned for a brief period; and Mustapha, who during his brother's life was the inmate of a prison. After occupying the throne for a few months, he was again immured to make way for his nephew, Osman; and the latter, being defeated during an invasion of Poland, was slain by the Janizaries.

Amurath the Intrepid, son of Mustapha, soon after mounted the throne, but after vanquishing the Persians, and taking Bagdad, he killed himself with a debauch. His son, Ibrahim, proving a weak prince, was strangled by four mutes; and Mohammed IV., ascending the throne in 1648, rendered his power for-

midable to Christendom, maintained a successful war with Germany, and undertook the memorable siege of Vienna. His immediate successors played no conspicuous part in European affairs; but, in 1694, Mustapha II. ascended the throne, and quickly proved himself a daring warrior. After several campaigns, he was met at Zenta, in Hungary, by Prince Eugene, and totally defeated. Thirty thousand Turks are said to have perished on the occasion; the pavilion of the Sultan and the seal of the Turkish empire were lost; and Mustapha, having after an ineffectual struggle agreed to a peace, was deposed in favor of his brother, Achmet III. That prince, after wresting the Morea from the Venetians, commenced warlike operations in Hungary; but there his Grand Vizier was routed by the illustrious Eugene, and in 1718, compelled to conclude the peace of Passarowitz. This was a sad blow to the Sultan's declining power; and, being afterward unsuccessful in a war with the Persians, he was thrust from the throne, and replaced by Mohammed V.

In 1757, Mustapha, the brother of Mohammed, was elevated to the rank of Sultan, and was speedily involved in a war with Russia. The Russians, under Prince Galitzen, were successful in their operations; and having overrun Moldavia, prevailed upon the Greek inhabitants to acknowledge the Czarina as their sovereign. In 1770, the hostile armies met for a final struggle; the Russians were again victorious;

thousands of Turks lost their lives, and their ammunition and provisions fell into the hands of the enemy. Meantime, a fierce naval fight took place in the channel of Scio. The adverse commanders having locked their ships together with grappling irons, fought with unmitigated fury till the Russians, setting both vessels on fire, produced a terrific explosion and destroyed the crews. After a pause the contest was renewed by the remaining vessels, and the impassioned struggle continued till nightfall, when the Turks cut their cables. and made for a bay on the coast of Natolia; but some Russian fire-ships having been artfully conveyed among the fleet, totally consumed the Turkish vessels. The Russians then bombarded the town, which was soon reduced to ashes by the explosion of a powdermagazine in the castle.

Mustapha expired soon after these disasters; and a peace, favorable to the interests of Russia, was concluded by his brother, Achmet IV., who died while preparing an expedition against Germany and Russia. His nephew, Selim III., succeeded, and entered upon a war with the latter power, which proved most unfortunate. During its continuance, the Turks lost an important fortress, a large extent of territory, and about two hundred thousand men; and they were in the utmost danger of experiencing disasters still more fatal, when England and Prussia interfered for their protection.

In 1801, after the surrender of Alexandria by the

French, and the consequent evacuation of Egypt, a peace was concluded between Turkey and France; and in 1806, war was declared between the Porte and Russia. The Turks were then exhorted to repair to the standard of Mohammed, and manifest their ancient courage. Nevertheless, the Russians were triumphant by sea and land; and Turkish affairs were rendered still more gloomy by a domestic revolution. The Sultan, bent on introducing European tactics into his army, gave mortal offense to the Janizaries, who contemptuously rejected the proposed innovations. Selim, to punish their disobedience, signified that the duty of escorting him to the mosque should in future be performed by troops trained on the modern system. This was more than these privileged soldiers could brook; and resolving upon a display of their power, they conducted him, with contumely, to the ancient seraglio-the residence of deposed potentates. They then led forth his cousin Mustapha, a spirited youth of twenty-eight, and, with loud acclamations, proclaimed him Sultan.

Several years went by; and after Europe had recovered from convulsions, men of poetic temperament "dreamed that Greece might yet be free." The Greeks, determined upon asserting their liberties, rose against their Turkish rulers, and commenced the War of Independence. At first they were victorious in several battles, made themselves masters of the country south of Thessaly, and seemed to have thrown off the

yoke of centuries. But in 1825, Mehemet Ali, the Pasha of Egypt, sent his son Ibrahim with an army, and landing in the Morea, the latter took several towns, and defeated the insurgents in the field. The Turks rapidly recovered their lost ground, and the cause of the Greeks appeared hopeless. The arrival of Lord Cochrane to take the command did not avail; for, having sailed to the relief of Athens, the noble admiral witnessed the defeat and dispersion of the Greeks, and had to swim to his ship.

The Turks now had every thing in their hands; but Russia, in extreme anxiety to weaken her former foe, took part with the Greeks, who had, besides, the sympathies of England and France; and these powers finding their threats disregarded, took strong measures to terminate the sanguinary contest.

The Turks girded themselves up for the impending struggle, and were reinforced by the Egyptian fleet in the harbor of Navarino; and on the 20th of October, 1827, the English, French, and Russian fleets, under Admiral Codrington, effected an entrance. There was a sharp struggle of four hours' duration; and when it was over, the wrecks of the united fleets of Turkey and Egypt strewed the waters. The disabled vessels, after being set on fire by their crews, were abandoned.

Matters did not rest here; for a fresh war breaking out between Turkey and Russia, Adrianople was taken by the Russians without their firing a shot; and Constantinople was in the utmost danger when the peace of Adrianople was agreed to.

These humiliations, however mortifying to the pride of a nation whose military power had once been more formidable than that of any European monarchy, were not to be avoided; and the independence of Greece was acknowledged by Turkey in September, 1829. A constitutional monarchy was then instituted in the liberated country; and in 1832, Prince Otho of Bavaria being called to the throne, assumed his present position as King of Greece.

CHAPTER XVII.

HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

WHILE England, under the first of her Scottish kings, was falling from the high estate she had occupied under her native princes; while in France the genius of Richelieu was making itself felt; while the glory was departing from the Spanish monarchy; while the Thirty Years' War was beginning to desolate Germany; while the illustrious career of Gustavus Adolphus was opening upon Sweden; and while the warriors of Turkey were yet terrible to the nations of Europe, Michael Theodoriwitz, earliest of the dynasty of Romanoff, became Czar of Muscovy. His dominions were uncultivated, his subjects barbarous, and the country was in the utmost disorder; for on the extinction of the male line of the former Czarsthe posterity of John Basilowitz, who had redeemed Russia from the Tartars-no fewer than five pretenders had aspired to the vacant throne, and involved the realm in civil war. But Michael, proving worthy of his elevation, reigned for more than thirty years, maintained his position with dignity, and bequeathed the crown to his heir.

Alexis, the son of Michael, succeeded in 1645, and applied himself with vigor to the harsh duties of reform. The necessity was indeed pressing; for Muscovy was still little better than a ferocious anarchy; and the capital was kept in perpetual consternation by the capital was kept in perpetual consternation by

Toward the close of his reign Alexis was deprived by death of his first wife; and though he had a family of sons and daughters, the Czar determined upon a second matrimonial speculation. According to the fashion then pursued by the rulers of Russia, Alexis issued a proclamation inviting all the most beautiful damsels in his dominions, irrespective of their social condition, to repair to Moscow that he might select a fitting bride. Among the rest came a lady named Natalic. She, having attracted the eye of Alexis, was forthwith exalted to the dignity of Czarina; and, in due time, she became the mother of a prince who afterward rendered himself famous as Peter the Great.

When Alexis expired in 1676, he left, besides Peter, then a mere child, two sons, Theodore and Ivan, and a daughter, Sophia, who ere long played a conspicuous part in Russian affairs. Theodore, a sickly youth, inherited his father's crown, but did not survive to wear it for more than a few years. On his death-bed he summoned the boyards to his presence, and recommended them to set aside Ivan on account of his bodily infirmities, and intrust the sceptre to the youthful Peter. To this scheme Sophia, who united much personal beauty with a strong will and a vaulting ambition, was vehemently opposed; and her smiles so completely won over the Captain of Strelitzes, and fascinated the populace, that the incapable Ivan was seated on the throne, while she assumed the functions of government. The widowed Czarina and her son, after being besieged in their palace, fled from the city, and sought an asylum in the Convent of Trinity; but they had scarcely taken refuge within its walls, when the soldiers of Sophia were heard clamoring at the outer gate. At this crisis a lucky thought crossed the agitated brain of the trembling Czarina. She placed her son on the high altar; and when the soldiers effected an entrance, the Superior of the Convent, pointing to the boy, exclaimed, "Behold him! there he is The soldiers were touched with awe, till with God." one of them, less scrupulous than his fellows, after a pause stepped forward, and brandished his weapon to strike the child. But a monk, arresting his arm, thrust him back, saying with calm solemnity, " Not in this sacred place." At that moment the tread of cavalry was again heard, and the Superior having exclaimed, "Here come our friends at last; let the enemies of God and the Czar tremble," the edifice was speedily cleared of intruders, and the royal boy's life providentially saved.

The son of Natalie had other perils to encounter on the threshold of life. At an obscure village, situated at a distance from Moscow, he was surrounded by a number of most profligate youths to corrupt his morals and debase his mind. But, instead of falling into the snare, Peter persuaded his comrades to have recourse to manly sports and martial exercises; he formed them into a small military force; and in this juvenile regiment, taking rank only as a private, he wrought his way gradually to command.

About this time Le Fort and Gordon, two adventurers of mark and likelihood, appeared in Russia. Le Fort was a native of Geneva, and had been originally destined for commercial pursuits; but with a soul above such matters, he had followed the bent of his inclination, and betaken himself to a military career. Gordon was of a different stamp, being the cadet of a Cavalier family in Scotland, who had in youth left his native soil to win fame and fortune, and who had served with the Swedes and Poles. Peter now attached these distinguished soldiers of fortune to his cause; and they rendered him most valuable aid in his schemes for the creation of that power which is now regarded as one of the most pernicious elements in European society.

When Peter had attained his seventeenth year he took to himself a wife; and this step so alarmed the aspiring Sophia, that in her haste she assumed the title of Empress, and dispatched a force to arrest the bridegroom. But her indications of enmity created such a ferment among the young hero's friends, that, in 1689, they compelled the haughty princess to abandon the struggle and retire to a convent, while Peter was installed as Czar.

Ambitious of learning the art of governing his people and of ameliorating their condition, Peter, in the company of Le Fort, who figured as embassador, left his dominions to acquire information in foreign lauds. After visiting Berlin, he repaired to Holland, studied commerce at Amsterdam, and wrought as an ordinary shipwright in the docks of Saardam. He then passed over to England to complete his knowledge; and carried with him from Deptford, which he visited as a simple mechanic, sailors and artificers, whom he afterward promoted to places of honor and command in Russia.

On returning home it became the chief object of the Czar Peter to teach his barbarous subjects the art of civilized war, and to form a regularly disciplined army. And in Charles XII. of Sweden he found an antagonist whose courage and enthusiasm called forth all his genius. In their first conflicts the Swedish monarch was triumphant, but Peter did not therefore blanch. "I knew," said he, after being defeated at Narva, "that the Swedes would beat us; but in time they will teach us to become their conquerors." He soon after recovered Narva by a skillful assault, and then applied his energies to the building of that remarkable town so intimately associated with his celebrity as a ruler.

The Czar, in realizing his project, made choice of a singular site. Between Finland and Ingria was a marshy island, which during summer was a heap of mud and in winter a frozen pool. Growling bears and howling wolves had hitherto haunted the spot; but, resolute in his purpose, the Czar, bringing men from all parts of his realm, cleared forests, formed roads, erected mounds, and laid the foundation of St. Petersburg. Though inundations demolished the works, and fever carried off the workmen, the Czar persevered in the undertaking; and in 1714 he removed the council thither from Moscow, the ancient capital.

A few years passed over; and Peter, assuming the title of Emperor of all the Russias, was formally acknowledged as such by the various powers of Europe. He established order throughout his dominions, provided education for youth, and adopted many useful reforms. But his temper was still so despotic, and his nature so fierce, that when Alexis, his son and heir, offended him by a dissolute life, and by opposing his schemes of civilization, the Czar ordered that he should suffer death. Peter himself expired in 1725,

and was succeeded on the throne by his second spouse the Czarina.

Catherine, originally a Livonian captive, exercised the functions of government with credit for the next three years, and was succeeded by Peter II., a son of the murdered Alexis. This Czar only reigned for a brief period; and the male line of the Romanoffs thus becoming extinct, the Russians elevated to the vacant throne Anne, duchess of Courland, the second daughter of the Czar Peter's brother. The reign of Anne was happy and prosperous; but on her decease there took place a struggle for the succession, which terminated in the proclamation of Elizabeth, a daughter of Peter the Great, and in the imprisonment of her rivals. Her reign was particularly fortunate. A war with Sweden was brought to a satisfactory conclusion, and the Czarina's fleets and armies were every where victorious. Russia, under the auspices of Elizabeth, took an important part in the Seven Years' War, and the position of Frederick the Great had gradually become one of extreme peril, when the Empress died in 1762, and the throne was inherited by her nephew Peter III.

Peter, who was animated by an enthusiastic admiration of the Prussian King's talent and courage, immediately consented to a peace, and the new reign commenced auspiciously. The nobles and gentry were freed from vassalage, and placed on an equality with those in other countries; and the laborers were,

to some extent, relieved from the burden of taxation. But being a Lutheran, Peter shocked the clergy by his contempt for the Greek Church, while he offended the army by his partiality for the Holstein Guards, and thus raised up a host of foes. The unfortunate Emperor had made another enemy, still more uncompromising. Before coming to the throne he had espoused Catherine, a princess of Anhalt Zerbst, a woman of great ability and boundless ambition. Their tastes, habits, and dispositions, were, however, utterly dissimilar; and fierce quarrels arising between them, Peter became so deeply enamored of the Countess of Woronzoff, that ere long a rumor crept about of his intention to shut up the Empress in prison and raise the Countess to share his throne. The rumor cost him dear; for while he was seeking consolation in the society of the lady of his heart, Catherine marched against the devoted Czar at the head of a strong party, proclaimed that he had ceased to reign, and threw him into prison, where he soon after breathed his last, under suspicious circumstances.

The masculine Empress then ascended the Russian throne with the title of Catherine II., and commenced her reign by flattering the prejudices which her ill-fated husband had so fatally wounded. But a large share of her attention was speedily bestowed upon the affairs of Poland. When Augustus, king of that ill-fated country, expired at Dresden in 1763, the Empress, by the influence of Russian bayonets, procured

the election of Stanislaus Augustus, one of her former favorites. Almost from the opening of the reign, Poland was the scene of disorder and desolation; for Catherine, having transported to Siberia a number of senators hostile to her designs, roused the indignant spirit of the nation. A band of patriotic Poles, seizing on Cracow and Bar, formed a league for their deliverance from a foreign yoke, and implored assistance from Louis XV. Fifteen hundred Frenchmen, under Dumouriez, marched to the assistance of the confederates, and Turkey took part in the quarrel. But the Russians were completely victorious; Bender was captured; the Turkish fleet was destroyed; and the Crimea was annexed to Catherine's dominions. Flushed with success, and unscrupulous by nature, the Empress projected the dismemberment of Poland, forced her scheme upon Maria Theresa, and in 1772 entered into a treaty of partition with the rulers of Austria and Prussia. The Polish Diet was intimidated by menaces; and the several provinces, about one-third of the Polish territory, which had been allotted to the spoilers, were surrendered.

Scarcely had the Russian Empress perpretrated this piece of ruthless injustice, when she was alarmed by the serious rebellion of a Cossack, who, assuming the name and character of her dead husband, pretended that he had escaped from the hands of those employed to assassinate him. The Cossack bore a striking resemblance to the deceased Czar, and was successful

in arraying a considerable band of followers under his banner. He boldly took the field, and, possessing both skill and valor, was for a time victorious over the generals of Catherine. But at length he was totally defeated, taken prisoner, carried to Moscow in an iron cage, and beheaded as a traitor.

Danger soon arose from another quarter. After undertaking one of the most pompous processions on record to be crowned at Cherson, Catherine, on her return to St. Petersburg, was disturbed by a declaration of war on the part of Turkey; but the Ottoman power lost considerably by the operations, and the Dneister was henceforth recognized as the frontier of the hostile empires.

Soon after this Catherine was startled with the outbreak of the French revolution, and against it she issued a strong declaration. But she refrained from taking any active part in opposition to its promoters; for while other countries were binding themselves up for the fierce struggle that ensued, the Czarina seized the occasion to make a second onslaught on devoted Poland. In 1788 the Poles, in their aspirations after liberty, increased their army, and framed a new constitution, which rendered the crown hereditary in the family of the Elector of Saxony. The Empress, thereupon, sent an army into Poland, under pretense of maintaining the settlement of 1772, but in reality to complete the subjugation of the unhappy country, which, in 1793, she effected, with the aid of the King

of Prussia. The Polish nobles, however, took up arms to rescue their native land, and, under the brave Kosciusko, were at first victorious, but the defeat and captivity of their general rendered further resistance unavailing.

Warsaw still holding out, and refusing to surrender, the Russians, under Suwarrow, assailed the town; and there ensued a fierce conflict, in which the Poles perished by thousands. After a resistance of eight hours they laid down their arms; but even then a multitude of unarmed and defenseless human beings were mercilessly sacrificed by fire and sword. Suwarrow entered with the pride of a victor; and the *Te Deum* was sung to celebrate his triumph. Next year Stanislaus made a formal resignation of his thorny erown. "I can cheerfully," he said, "surrender what has brought me so much calamity."

With insatiable ambition the Czarina next cast her eyes longingly on Courland, and allured its Duke to her court. During his absence the nobles of that fertile and populous district assembled the states, to annex their country to Russia. To this scheme there was at first serious opposition; but a Russian general suddenly appearing in the assembly silenced all objections, and the deposed Duke retired to extensive estates which he had purchased in Prussia.

In 1796, after a successful war with Persia, Catherine was summoned to another state of existence; and the empire which she had rendered so extensive,

was inherited by her son Paul. The deceased Czarina had confined herself to verbal denunciations in her hostility to revolutionary France; but her successor, eager to signalize his accession by some brilliant exploit, entered-with singular zeal for the cause of sovereigns—into a confederation against the Republic. After setting the brave Kosciusko at liberty, and making peace with Persia, he took an active part in the war against France, and sent a powerful force into Italy to the aid of Austria. Under Suwarrow the Russian army afterward entered Switzerland, and menaced that Republic; but the veteran conqueror or Poland was there utterly unsuccessful, and, depressed with the loss of renown, he returned with his shattered army to die of despair, under the frowns of his despotic sovereign.

Jealous of the maritime greatness and naval ascendency of England, and swayed by a chivalrous admiration of Napoleon, the capricious Czar changed his politics, allied himself with France, seized the British ships in his ports, and organized the Northern Confederacy, which was dissolved by the victory of Copenhagen. But ere the news of that event could reach his ear, Paul had met a terrible fate; for his tyrannies had so provoked his courtiers, that they declared his death to be essential to the welfare of the empire. At dead of night, in March 1801, the Emperor, in his regimentals, was reposing on a sofa, when the conspirators glided into his apartments. A hussar,

who kept guard, opposing their entrance, was cut down with the stroke of a sabre; and the Emperor, awaking at the noise, sprang to his feet, and endeavored to intrench himself behind chairs and tables. Finding his assailants resolute, the Emperor implored mercy, and even promised to make them all princes; but observing that they were inexorable, he sprang forward to escape through a high window. At length a blow prostrated him on the floor, and a young Hanoverian, twining his sash round the victim's neck, and giving one end to an accomplice, twisted with all his might till the life of the miserable Emperor was extinct. The conspirators then retired, without molestation, from the palace. At early morn the intelligence was bruited about that Paul had died of apoplexy; and, in the course of the day, his eldest son, Alexander, was proclaimed Emperor of all the Russias.

The new Czar, for awhile, maintained neutrality between contending nations; but in 1804, when the Duke d'Enghien was seized at Ettenheim, carried to Paris, and shot in the wood of Vincennes, he assumed an attitude of hostility toward Bonaparte, formed a coalition with Austria and England, and undertook a campaign. The rapid successes of the French so bewildered Mack that he capitulated at Ulm; and Napoleon, after his entry into Vienna, marching into Moravia to meet the Russians, encountered their army, with the remains of the Austrians, at Austerlitz, and

obtained one of the most glorious victories on record. Another coalition was soon formed; and Napoleon, appearing in Poland, fought at Eylau a battle bloody and indecisive; but at Friedland he completely vanquished the Russians, and forced the Czar to sue for peace. On a raft on the river Niemen, a conference was held between Napoleon and the vanquished sovereigns of Prussia, Russia, and Austria. This resulted in the Peace of Tilsit, in the erection of the Duchy of Warsaw, and in the acknowledgment of the Elector of Saxony as its sovereign.

Continental Europe was now at Napoleon's feet; but against his prodigious power and inordinate ambition another confederation was formed; and, in this league, Russia took a conspicuous part. The Emperor of the French thereupon repaired to Dresden, and fruitlessly attempted to lure back the Czar to his interests. But failing in that object, Napoleon took the field at the head of four hundred thousand men, crossed the Niemen, and advanced to Wilna. The Diet of Warsaw, after proclaiming the liberation of their country, demanded that the invader should recognize the independence of Poland; and Napoleon, returning an evasive answer, drove the Russians before him to Smolensko, where preparations had been made to arrest his progress.

On the 16th of August, 1812, Napoleon was before the ancient city, and at noon next day the conflict began. The French, at the point of the bayonet, drove the Russians within the walls, and the battle raged fiercely till sunset; but, when night set in, the city was in flames. Next morning the French, entering without resistance, found the place abandoned, save by men who were yielding their latest breath amidst the glare of the conflagration; and Smolensko was soon a heap of ruins. The Russians, laying waste the country, retreated toward Moscow, and the command of their army was transferred to Prince Kutosoff, a hoary and experienced general, whose arrival was hailed with delight. He announced that no more retrograde movements should be made, encouraged the troops by his presence, and exhorted them to defend Moscow to the last. This place was the ancient and venerable capital of their Empire; and its vast suburbs, its magnificent buildings, its towers, its domes, its spires, and its terraces, rendered Moscow one of the most interesting places in Europe, and the pride of the Russian Empire. Well might they fight for such a eity!

Both leaders exercised their utmost ingenuity, and made their dispositions with military skill. Along the Russian lines priests bore the sacred relics that had been saved at Smolensko, and inspired the soldiers with religious enthusiasm; and while their breasts were yet glowing with excitement, Prince Kutosoff implored them, in lofty and inspiriting words, "to think of their wives, their children, and their Emperor, and to write their faith and fealty on the field

of their country with the life's blood of the invader and his legions."

On the morning of the 7th of September, Napoleon, who, aware of his veteran antagonist's genius, had become more cautious in his operations, issued from his tent, and addressed his officers and soldiers in befitting terms. The hostile armies then met at Borodino, and the contest was maintained for hours with desperate valor. At one time the victor of Austerlitz had the mortification to see the choicest of his troops driven from the field. Bayonets and sabres flashed, and artillery thundered till night arrived, when both parties laid claim to the victory. But the Russian general decided on leaving Moscow to its fate: the inhabitants precipitately abandoned their houses; and the governor formally evacuated the city at the head of forty thousand persons.

Next morning the French, glowing with exultation, presented themselves at the gate, and forced an entrance; but scarcely had they done so, when they became aware that Moscow was in a blaze. The Exchange, an extensive building, containing warehouses stored with valuable merchandise, was first consigned to the flames, and, subsequently, a strong wind prevailing, the whole city was a sheet of fire, and the sky was obscured by volumes of smoke. The pillage soon commenced, and Napoleon's camp in the fields was filled with rich spoil.

But now, deprived of the prospect of wintering at

Moscow, the position of the Emperor of the French became perilous in the extreme; for he had penetrated into the heart of a hostile country; the cold season was approaching; and the ruined city offered no asylum from the rigor of the climate. He, therefore, humbled his pride so far as to commence negotiations with Alexander; but finding his efforts fruitless, after forty days he abandoned his scheme of conquest, and issued orders for a retreat. But the Russians, believing the conqueror of Europe to be at length in their power, were bent upon revenge; and Kutosoff remarked—"The French have proclaimed the eampaign terminated at Moscow, but on our part the warfare is about to begin."

The retreat of Napoleon was disastrous beyond all precedent. The Russian armies seized every opportunity of attacking his troops; the winter set in with nnusual severity; and the troops were paralyzed with cold. The Cossacks, whose sole delight was war, under their celebrated leader, the Hetman Platoff, now mercilessly assailed the retiring legions, wrought fearful havoe, broke down bridges in the line of march, and harassed them on all sides. Scarcely had the French, after a day's toilsome march, stretched themselves on the ground to enjoy a little repose, when these vigilant foes rushed impetuously into the camp, and, ere the sleepers could resist, slaughtered them in heaps, and carried off stores and artillery. A scene of unparalleled horrors ensued; and the situation of the

French forces became quite desperate. Cold and famine preyed upon the troops; flights of ravens hovered over their line of march; and troops of dogs followed in the rear to consume their remains. The horses perished by thousands; the cannon and wagons were abandoned; and all military order was at an end.

With his army in this evil plight, Napoleon, on the 23d of November, had to cross the Beresina in presence of the enemy, and a scene, replete with horrors, occurred. The river, though covered with floating ice, was not yet frozen over, and rafts had to be constructed and launched under the enemy's fire. Multitudes were engulfed in the waters; and the passage of the Beresina proved more fatal than the most sanguinary field. On the 5th of December, Napoleon, mortified and sick at heart, abandoned the miserable wreck of bis once magnificent army, and repaired to Paris.

Though the mighty Emperor had been defeated more by the elements than the Russian foe, the result of the campaign was to raise the renown of the Czar's arms; and Alexander, to complete the work thus begun, called upon the other powers of Europe to vindicate their national independence against his former ally. The invitation was not unavailing; for with the reverses of the French arms commenced the defection of Napoleon's allies. A triple alliance was formed between Russia. Austria, and Prussia; the Emperor

of the French was designated as the common enemy; the allied sovereigns undertook their campaign for the liberties of Europe, and their army marched triumphantly into Paris.

The Congress of Vienna assembled in 1814; and, while Prussia was bent on the acquisition of Saxony, Alexander applied his energies to obtaining the duchy of Warsaw, which was still occupied by his troops. He was successful in his object: and what remained of Poland was handed over to the Czar, on condition of his ruling it by a special and constitutional government.

Ten years passed over; Alexander, in 1825, died of a fever at Taganrog; Constantine, the next son of the murdered Paul, a man of savage spirit, renounced his hereditary claim to the crown, and the vacant throne was ascended by his younger brother, Nicholas, the reigning Emperor of all the Russias. That daring autocrat, within a year of his accession, undertook against Persia a war, which terminated in his favor; and, in 1828, he availed himself of the temporary weakness of Turkey, to commence hostilities, to cross the Balkan mountains, and to impose upon the Sultan, among other hard terms, the Protectorate of the Danubian Principalities.

Meanwhile, the policy of Nicholas, and the personal character of the Grand Duke Constantine, rendered the condition of the Poles intolerable; a general insurrection took place in 1830; and the Czar, deeming

that this outbreak released him from his engagements, determined upon the extirpation of Polish nationality. His army marched with that object into Poland; the nobles of the unhappy nation were exiled to Siberia; the patrician ladies were given as helpmates to the invading soldiers; and their infants were conveyed away to be educated with Russian ideas, and inspired with Russian sentiments. The constitution of Poland was then withdrawn; her laws were abrogated; and the ancient nation, over which John Sobieski had reigned, and for which Kosciusko had fought, was declared an integral part of an Empire that had been fostered into importance by the genius of Peter the Great, extended in its limits by the lawless appropriations of the second Catherine, and aggrandized by the unscrupulous ambition of her despotic descendants.









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